The Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

TODAY'S EDUCATION

September-October 1974

- Henry Steele Commager on Watergate and the Schools
- Arthur Schlesinger, Jr., on Watergate and the Corruption of Language
- James Harris on Instructional Improvement
- Lawrence Cremin on the Free School Movement
- Discipline
- Poor Readers
- Motivating Students

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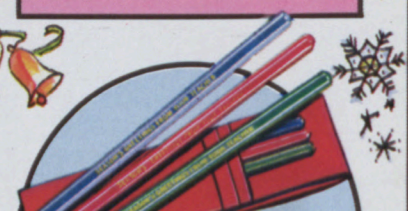

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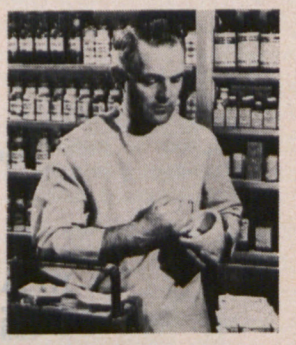

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TODAY'S EDUCATION

September-October 1974, Volume 63, Number 3

SPECIAL FEATURE

28 **Children with Problems**
Gary Phillips, Deborah W. Meier, Joyce Hood, Claire Greene, and Nelson Henry

ARTICLES

5 **The Role of Professional Associations in the Improvement of Instruction**
James A. Harris

20 **Watergate and the Schools**
Henry Steele Commager

25 **Watergate and the Corruption of Language**
Arthur M. Schlesinger, Jr.

45 **Do Black Poets Write Black Poems?**
Melvin G. Williams

48 **TV and Radio Teaching Tools**
Jack B. Spatafora

54 **A National Commitment of Federal Funds**
Terry Herndon

58 **College Faculty Women Fight Sex Bias**
Betty E. Sinowitz

63 **Alternatives in the Public School**
Mario D. Fantini

67 **Those Morning Announcements**
Tom Parks

68 **Motivating Students**
Marilyn Van Derbur

71 **The Free School Movement—a Perspective**
Lawrence A. Cremin

75 **How To Cut Discipline Problems in Half**
Jean Dunaway with reactions by Robert C. Longe, Teressa Marjorie Pratt, and James Fugate

78 **Teachers' Instructional Problems, 1974**
Bernard R. Bartholomew

81 **Coping with Violence**
John R. Lion interviewed by Harold G. Shane

86 **Science—Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow**
Fred Blumenfeld

CONTINUING FEATURES

110 After All
90 Books
93 Classroom *by Jane Tylor Field*
102 Developments
5 Editorial
95 Free or Inexpensive
19 Law and Teacher Rights
8 Letters
47 Light Touch *by Steve Brody*
94 New NEA Materials
111 Reader Service
12 Research Clues *by Alexander Frazier*
105 Teacher Opinion Poll

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DESIGN BY JAMES J. FISHER

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Published four times a year in September-October, November-December, January-February, and March-April by the National Education Association of the United States, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036. Telephone: Area Code 202, 833-4000. TODAY'S EDUCATION® goes to all members of the Association. Annual subscription price $1.05 (included in membership). Single copies $2 each. Second-class postage paid at Washington, DC, and at additional mailing offices. Copyright © 1974 by the National Education Association of the United States. All rights reserved. POSTMASTER: PLEASE SEND POD FORM 3579 (CHANGE OF ADDRESS) TO NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, 1201 16th ST., N.W., WASHINGTON, DC 20036

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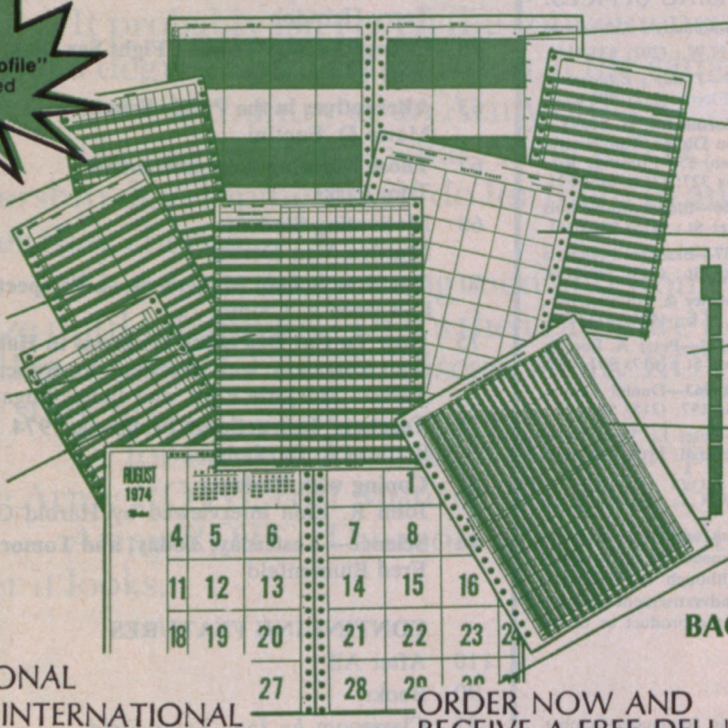

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EDITORIAL

The Role of Professional Associations in the Improvement of Instruction

By JAMES A. HARRIS
NEA President.

Helping you be successful as a teacher must be a major function of NEA as a teacher advocate organization. To establish the conditions necessary for teaching success requires greater effort on the part of NEA and your state and local associations.

Since our professional development problems are so diverse and complex, appropriate and agreed-upon roles must be established for national, state, and local action. And these roles must be integrated into a dynamic, active teacher movement across this land.

The NEA has suggested the following roles for itself:

1. Insuring the adequacy of teacher involvement in decision making, policy formulation, and program implementation in all matters related to instruction and professional development.

2. Keeping members alert to developments which significantly affect their practice.

3. Anticipating emerging problems and issues so that the organized profession can deal with them effectively.

4. Supporting affiliates—especially the states—in efforts to solve their critical professional development problems.

Although teachers can negotiate local agreements for the improvement of instruction with a local board, the nature and scope of such negotiations depend upon state law.

In addition, while problems with regard to teaching children are definitely local, the chances of succeeding at the same local level are increasingly tied directly to activities that are state and national in scope. Consider, for example, the accountability movement. In most states this has state assessment at its core. However, it is a state program which is being carefully nurtured by the U.S. Office of Education. So far, state assessment tends to reduce itself to evaluation, which has often become a narrowly conceived testing program. As a result, teacher organizations are forced to use their time, resources, and effort trying to neutralize a bad movement. The Michigan assessment program illustrates what can happen. (For details, see the May 1974 *NEA Reporter.*)

Associations must generate the power, knowledge, and programs which will guarantee that classroom teachers do have control over the conditions necessary for success. Moreover, associations must be capable of clearly delineating to boards, parents, and others the nature of these conditions. In order to do this, they must ascertain what teachers need and then develop action programs to fulfill such needs. What associations cannot and should not be expected to do is to pay for implementation of programs designed to improve instruction. This should be a public responsibility, not a private one.

The NEA has a major objective to establish publicly financed and practitioner-designed in-service programs. To obtain such programs will require new contract rights in the case of most local associations. Nationwide planning by teachers is also essential so that organizational roles will be clearly established to avoid duplication and conflict.

To bring about instructional improvement involves specific information, knowledge, and power to undertake educational reform. Because our school systems are a part of a larger social system, little or no reform is likely to take place unless national priorities are geared to the necessity of changing the teaching and learning environments. Furthermore, intelligent reform simply does not occur by fiat. When teachers acquire the resources, power, and right to control their teaching environment, the problems of self-improvement will be self-evident and specific. That is why we need to transform our teacher associations into a dynamic system capable of producing conditions necessary for individual professional improvement of members.

Just for openers, we must commit ourselves to becoming more effective as an organized national group in matters such as the following:

1. The direct participation in the devising of federal programs and guidelines which directly affect instruction and professional development of individual members. This includes all levels of teacher preparation as well as research and development.

2. The development of more positive and realistic forms of state programs designed to assist teachers in improving instruction. This includes not only funding but substantive expert assistance upon request.

3. The creation of a system of local, publicly financed teacher-renewal centers designed and controlled by teachers for assisting individual practitioners on a continuous day-to-day basis.

If we move vigorously in these directions, teachers will soon have a national system for (a) controlling their own professional standards, entrance into the profession, and advanced training; (b) certifying their own self-renewal programs; (c) providing exchange experiences for teachers as well as exchanging proven and workable teacher-produced teaching materials and certifying commercial ones; and (d) providing sabbatical leaves.

Most important, teachers will have a new self-respect —the most powerful human force on this earth. □

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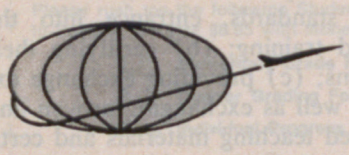

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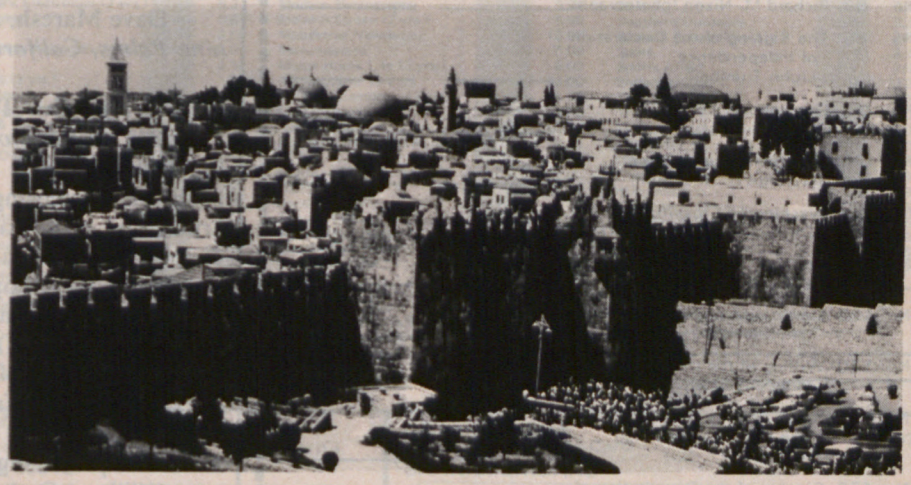

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LETTERS

Ideas and opinions in this feature are those of the writers and not necessarily of the NEA. "Letters" is primarily a forum for NEA members. If you are currently a member, please paste the mailing label from one of your recent copies of Today's Education *at the top of your letter. Please also indicate your school, position, and home address.*

Gabor and Society

It is refreshing to have Dr. Gabor ("Toward a More Mature Society," March-April) point out some of the requirements of becoming a more mature society—requirements that would bring back a love for life and an appreciation of our past heritage!

—Ruth M. R. Hart, *Minneapolis.*

The Handicapped

"Mainstreaming the Handicapped" by Myron Brenton (March-April) is a thorough discussion of the most important issue in special education today. Wherever teacher expectations are based on an accurate evaluation of a particular child rather than on vague assumptions and erroneous interpretations of a label, "special" students can sit beside "regular" students and enjoy the benefits of mainstreaming.

—Dave Maresh, *teacher of special education, Twenty-nine Palms, California.*

Where Are the Teacher-Writers?

Today's Education is a fine and informative magazine, but I must express a concern about it. Lately, there has been an increasing and disproportionate number of articles by professors of education rather than by those directly involved in the education of children.

While I do enjoy some articles by professors (some of whom are former classroom teachers and present members of NEA) and others not directly connected with the teaching of children, I see a need for more solicitation of articles from practicing teachers and administrators. If children tend to learn from each other, it follows that practicing teachers learn from each other also.

—William Corbett, *principal, James Russell Lowell School, Watertown, Massachusetts.*

The editors will continue to solicit articles from specific classroom teachers and to invite teachers in general to submit in-depth articles on subjects of interest and importance to their colleagues, for possible use in future issues of the magazine.

Artículo en Español

Con el énfasis actual tan necesario en bilingualismo, opino que es una idea excelente la de *Today's Education* de publicar un artículo en español. ¿Ustedes están de acuerdo?

—Jennie M. Durán, *Salt Lake City, Utah.*

La editora invita a los lectores a opinar sobre esta sujestión de la Sra. Durán.

(Continued on page 10)

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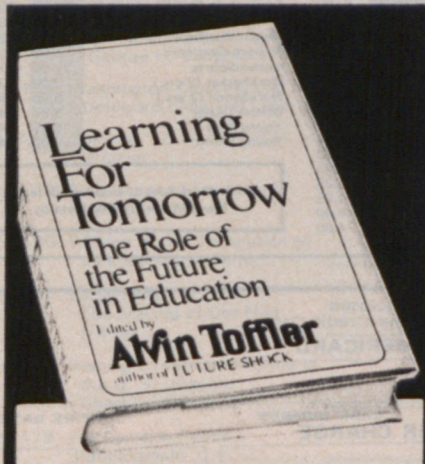

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RANDOM HOUSE

LETTERS

(Continued)

Marya Mannes and Language

It is a shame that Marya Mannes (March-April) appears to have such contempt for the language of today's youth. To the initiated (those who spend time with youth rather than criticize them from lofty vantage points), the language is rich in expression of feeling and intensity.

The youth are saying they are fed up with words because they have seen them twisted, bent, interpreted, reinterpreted, used, and misused. Many feel that the "acceptable speech" of adults is responsible for the ills in our nation, and, consequently, strive to communicate by other means whether, as Miss Mannes puts it, through amplification beyond all hearing" or "gyrating pelvises."

—Edward S. Beck, *counselor, Counseling Center, The Pennsylvania State University, Middletown.*

I enjoyed the article by Miss Mannes.

Words are the building blocks of thought, and, without a doubt, as Miss Mannes points out, "Like, man, y'know" is not language. But, unfortunately, teachers have allowed this to go on without challenge.

—Samuel E. Hayes, *Spruce Creek, Pennsylvania.*

Marya Mannes makes good points, but it is too bad that while decrying self-indulgence, she cannot resist the same in slapping the President. To proclaim that "Peace with Honor" is a "gross violation of truth" without saying why or suggesting a more accurate term seems like self-indulgence to me.

—R. W. Broten, *Washington High School, Phoenix, Arizona.*

Watergate in the Classroom

As a student, I agree with Hugh Sidey ("Watergate and the Classroom," January-February) that the natural place for young people to have their questions concerning Watergate answered is in the classroom. However, teachers must keep in mind that they may overemphasize Watergate or any other issue of national importance to such an extent that students reject the topic.

—Mary Hospers, *Hope College, Holland, Michigan.*

Obese Students

Jean Mayer has written a humane and inspiring article on helping obese students (January-February).

I am a member of the Educational Committee of the National Association To Aid Fat Americans (Box 745, Westbury, New York 11590). We regard fat people as a minority with problems. Our pamphlet, *For the Overweight Teenager*, is available free to teachers.

—Rhea Bardin, *school nurse teacher, Mill Lane Junior High School, Farmingdale, New York.*

Bangladesh

The plight of 80 million people in Bangladesh is portrayed in an 11-minute color filmstrip, *Books for Bangladesh*. Photographed in Bangladesh in 1973, the filmstrip is available on loan to American teachers from Franklin Book Programs, Inc., 801 Second Avenue, New York 10017. A teacher's guide, map, fact sheet, bibliography, and posters are also available.

—Braulio Alonso, *director, NEA International Relations.*

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—Jeffrey V. Odom, *chief, Metric Information Office, National Bureau of Standards, Washington, DC 20234.*

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RESEARCH CLUES

By **ALEXANDER FRAZIER**
Professor of Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus.

Are teachers sometimes better than they think?

A study of Oregon health teachers in secondary schools reveals that their students rate them higher than they rate themselves. Significant differences in teacher and student evaluation were found in two-thirds of the cases. For three-fourths of the teachers, student evaluations of enthusiasm, preparation, and fairness were higher than teacher self-evaluations.

See Michael S. Brock and Robert J. Houston. "Self-Evaluation of Health Teachers as Compared to Student Evaluation of Same Teachers." *The Journal of School Health* 44: 98-99; February 1974.

How can research benefit curriculum development?

Today research is needed on a number of key educational problems. One is how to introduce change while maintaining the system, a matter of economics as well as sociology. Another is the more precise identification of learning needs. Children are not all at the same place in regard to socialization, for example.

A major concern to which research could contribute is the question of whether learning is best organized from the outside in the shape of preplanned programs or from the inside through the learner's own operations. Finally, research is needed on the problem of whether real-life or action learning ought to be incorporated in the school experience of some and perhaps all older learners.

See Ralph W. Tyler. "Utilizing Research in Curriculum Development." *Theory into Practice* 13: 5-10; February 1974.

Do children who learn to read using the Initial Teaching Alphabet spell as well as other children?

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(Continued on page 14)

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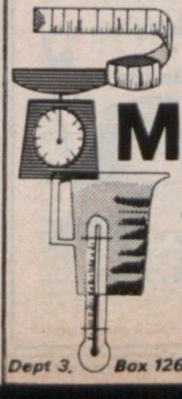

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Research Clues
(Continued)

600 third to fifth graders in a western New York rural school district. Children taught by the traditional methods and those who started off with the expanded and modified alphabet known as i.t.a. showed little difference in spelling prowess. One other finding is worth noting: Three-fourths of all the children spelled all the test words correctly!

See Walter T. Petty and others. "Spelling Achievement and the Initial Teaching Alphabet." *The Elementary School Journal* 74: 309-13; February 1974.

What are the symptoms of young people who suffer from fear of aging?

Some older boys and young men in their twenties reveal a "terror of life" or fear of aging that is virtually incapacitating. They worry about minor ailments, consume vitamins, obsessively check their temperature and blood pressure, and brush and rebrush their teeth. They hate to go to sleep (might not wake up). They feel safest and most comfortable in their own bedrooms, even when they can't sleep. And when they don't have to go to school or work, they may sleep till midafternoon, storing it up, so to speak.

In treatment, such passive types often develop unusual dependence on the therapist, and their progress is slow. But they can get over their fears. (Also, of course, they really do get older.)

See S. J. Golburgh and Charles B. Rotman. "The Terror of Life—a Latent Adolescent Nightmare." *Adolescence* 8: 569-74; Winter 1974.

What do teachers think about in-service education?

Nearly 90 percent of a statewide sample of Tennessee teachers (646 of them in 147 districts) agree that teachers should be able to select the in-service activities that they feel would help them most. Nearly 75 percent feel that many in-service activities do not appear relevant to the felt needs of teachers.

Eighty-six percent believe teachers should receive released time for in-service education, and 60 percent indicate these activities should be scheduled during the school day. Finally, a majority of these respondents believe in-service credit should be given for travel, research, graduate courses, professional writing, and professional reading.

See Jack L. Brimm and Daniel J. Tollett. "How Do Teachers Feel About In-Service Education?" *Educational Leadership* 31: 521-25; March 1974.

What mathematics knowledge is of most worth?

Apparently the new math hasn't answered this question to the satisfaction of all concerned. The present call is for another effort to revive relevance as a guide to content selection. But Professor Bell defines relevance broadly and rejects outright the skill-and-drill emphasis he attributes to much of the current behavioral-objectives push.

Cheap electronic calculators, he predicts, are just around the corner and will relieve us of some of our preoccupation with calculation. What is needed now is an effort to define and test for feasibility and verifiability a list of learnings as a minimum for everybody. Bell bravely proposes a list for testing that moves from the main uses of numbers through number relations, measurement concepts, use of estimates and approximations, and use of variables on to logic, probability, interpretation of graphs, and uses of computers.

See Max S. Bell. "What Does 'Everyman' Really Need from School Mathematics?" *The Mathematics Teacher* 67: 196-202; March 1974.

Is proneness to violence a matter of learned value patterns?

Some theorists have contended that certain subcultures teach boys a set of violence-related values that tend to get them into trouble with the law as they grow older. Maleness is equated with belief in an exciting life, freedom, pleasure, courage, independence, recognition, an eye for an eye.

(Continued on page 16)

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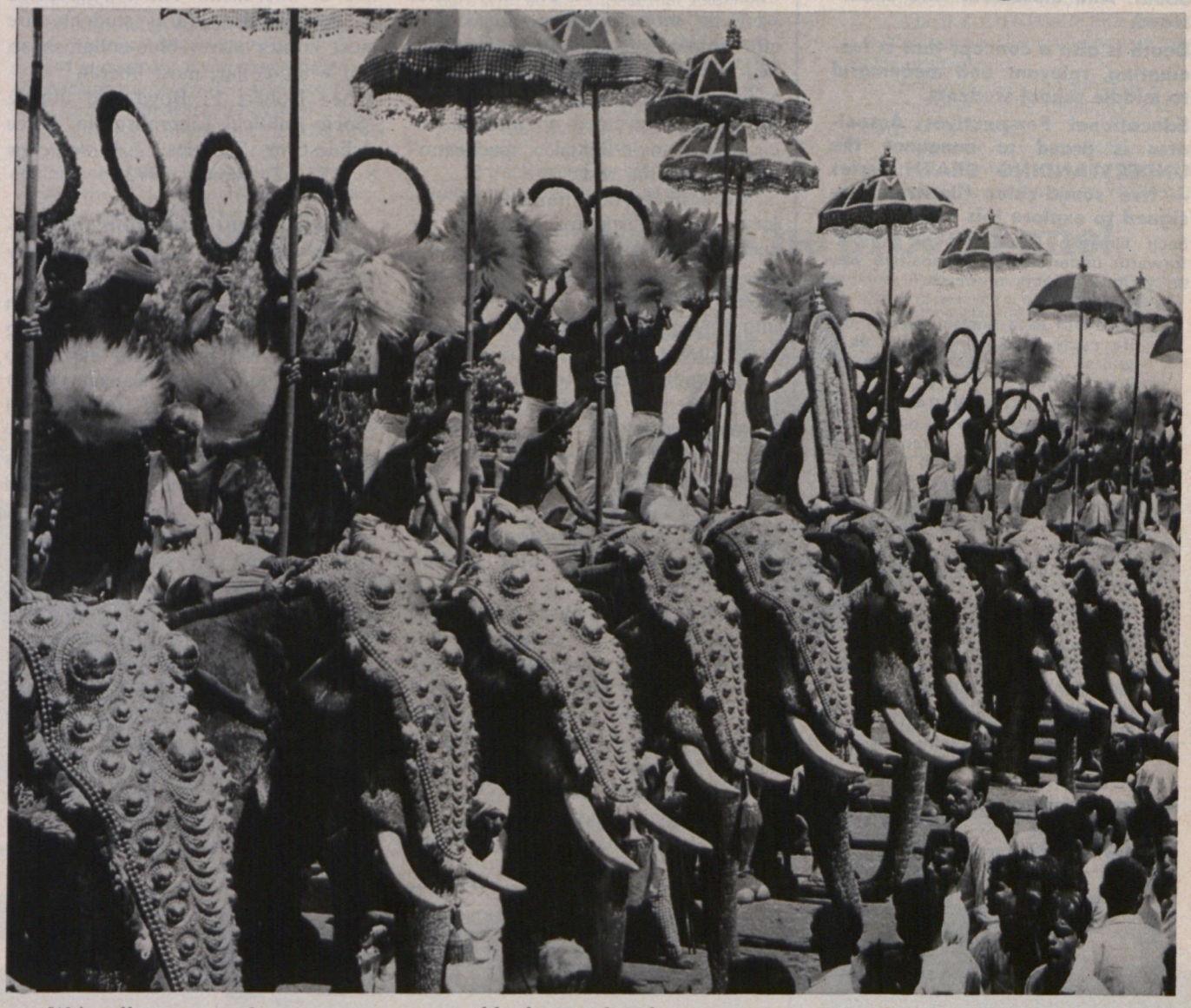

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Research Clues
(Continued)

But the present report brings all this into dispute. Murderers in a Michigan sample of prison inmates were no more violence-valued than other inmates. Also, males who identified themselves as more aggressive in a national noninstitutionalized sample of men revealed no more advocacy of male-linked "machismo" values than the rest.

More likely determinants of violence, the investigator proposes, are such factors as access to weapons, use of drugs and alcohol, population density, established levels of crime, and intergroup conflict. Violence is more interpersonal than intrapersonal.

See Sandra J. Ball-Rokeach. "Values and Violence: A Test of the Subculture of Violence Thesis." *American Sociological Review* 38: 736-49; December 1973.

What is the relationship between family status and student liberalism?

Student activists have been studied often enough at the college level to indicate that they tend to be bright, well-to-do, and brought up to think for themselves. What about high school students? Are there relationships between family status and liberalism among them, too?

The present study compares samples of rural, blue-collar, and white-collar high school youth on a range of attitudes thought to be representative of liberalism. The results come as no surprise: rural students are most conservative; blue-collar, next; and white-collar, most liberal.

See Robert E. Boyd and others. "Socio-Political Liberalism in Three Adolescent Samples." *Adolescence* 8: 455-62; Winter 1973.

Does parent education in helping children ask questions pay off?

Seems to—at least with Mexican American children. After tutoring sessions in which mothers learned to recognize and reward causal (why) questions as opposed to nominal (what) ones, their six-to-seven-year-olds asked more questions of all kinds than did other children. Parents used techniques such as modeling (themselves asking questions about the objects pictured on stimulus cards), cueing ("Now it's your time to ask questions"), and reinforcing (giving helpings of sugar-coated cereal regardless of performance).

See Ronald W. Henderson and Angela B. Garcia. "The Effects of Parent Training Program on the Question-Asking Behavior of Mexican American Children." *American Educational Research Journal* 10: 193-201; Summer 1973.

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Title IX Proposed Guidelines To Ban Sex Bias in Education

Sex discrimination in education—including admissions, treatment of students in educational programs, and employment practices—is illegal in federally aided institutions, according to a proposed regulation issued in June by the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare to enforce Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972. Release of the proposed guidelines is an important landmark in the struggle for women's rights and in the elimination of restrictive sex stereotyping of men and women.

The regulation will provide women students and educators with means to register complaints of denial of equal opportunity in education. It also provides for compliance reviews, the seeking of voluntary compliance from school systems and institutions found in violation of Title IX and enforcement action either through administrative proceedings to withdraw federal financial assistance or referral of the matter to the Department of Justice for court action.

Most federally assisted institutions from preschools to universities are covered by Title IX. Exempted from coverage are military schools and religious schools if regulations would conflict with their religious tenets.

According to the regulations, sex segregation or restricting admission to members of one sex is illegal in vocational high and postsecondary schools, in public undergraduate schools, and in all professional and graduate schools. These institutions will be required to recruit members of both sexes for admission. They may not set quotas based on sex or set different admissions criteria such as test scores.

The proposed regulation also prohibits discrimination in employment in educational institutions from preschool to university. It will provide another remedy to address pervasive sex bias and stereotyping in employment opportunity in the education profession.

The proposed Title IX regulation generally reflects guidelines of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission and of the Labor Department's Office of Federal Contract Compliance with regard to employment discrimination. Full- as well as part-time employees are covered for such areas as hiring and promotion.

Separate career ladders and tenure systems based on sex are prohibited as are different retirement ages or pension plans. Fringe benefit plans must provide either equal benefits to male and female staff or equal contributions by the employer for members of each sex.

Pregnancy must be treated as a temporary disability for purposes of leave, disability pay, and fringe benefits. The NEA-backed LaFleur-Nelson case is cited as precedent for the pregnancy leave provisions. Also outlawed in the employment area are advertising sex preferences or specifications, making inquiries as to marital or parental status, hiring based on whether the applicant is a principal wage earner, and unequal compensation practices.

Proposed sections relating to the treatment of students cover federally aided preschools through universities as well as other organizations which receive financial aid for educational programs.

Practices which are illegal under Title IX include (but are not limited to) discrimination in teaching assignments of student teachers; unequal access to courses, extracurricular activities, and financial aid; unequal participation in insurance and medical benefits and other services; discrimination against students on account of pregnancy-related conditions; unequal athletic opportunities (but not expenditures) for members of both sexes; discrimination in employment of students by educational institutions and in use of facilities, including housing and rules concerning housing.

"The most serious omission in the proposed regulation concerning treatment of students is the lack of action related to sexist textbooks and instructional materials," commented NEA Executive Secretary Terry Herndon at the time they were issued. He added, "Although HEW's First Amendment concerns are understandable, it remains to be seen whether other HEW programs will be directed toward development of curriculum guidelines and materials and in-service training of personnel. Until classroom teachers have sufficient opportunity and resources for dealing with biased curriculum, we doubt that there will be sufficient impact from Title IX."

Also exempted from coverage are scholarship and fellowship programs established by foreign governments or legal instruments.

Citizen comment to the Secretary of HEW is invited until October 15. NEA urges educators and students to examine the provisions of the regulation and send the Secretary their reactions. Copies may be obtained from Regional Offices of HEW, or the NEA Teacher Rights Office.

—DuShane Emergency Fund, NEA Teacher Rights.

"He's a student of few words, but he uses them incessantly during class."

Watergate and the Schools

By **HENRY STEELE COMMAGER**
Distinguished Educator/Historian.

One of the most ominous developments of our time is the widespread loss of confidence in our system of government. That loss of confidence is not confined to the United States, nor is it inspired merely by a reaction to the sins and follies of this Administration. It is rooted in skepticism about the continuing viability of the American constitutional system.

The loss of confidence in our system of government is increased by reaction against the imperialism and militarism which the American system—for all its checks and balances—seems to permit. It is intensified by the conclusion that the United States is what the Holy Alliance was in the early years of the nineteenth century and what Britain was in the latter part of the century—a bastion of reaction throughout the globe, the friend and supporter of authoritarian regimes in Brazil, Spain, Korea, Vietnam, and Cambodia.

It is aggravated by what appears —quite logically—to be the palpable racism of so much of American foreign and military policy; it is sobered and saddened by the disappearance of—even the repudiation of—that sense of idealism and of mission which inspired Thomas Jefferson's sympathy with "infuriated man, seeking through blood and slaughter his long lost liberties" and which held out the hand of fellowship to revolutionaries throughout Europe and Latin America.

Though our attention is riveted on the spectacle which unfolds itself in Washington, our interest and our objective is not primarily in that. We are not concerned, or should not be, to punish Mr. Nixon and his piratical crew. History will take care of that.

We are concerned to vindicate our political system and our constitutional principles. The great question which confronts us so implacably is whether the American Constitution, which has served us so well, and the American political principles and practices which have worked so effectively over the years can continue to function in the modern world.

The American system—if I may use that evasive word to describe what we all recognize but cannot easily define—is both difficult and complex. It was the first contrived constitutional system in history—the first to be made anew, as the nation itself was the first to be made anew. Almost everything about it was an experiment: federalism; the separation of powers; the Presidential office; the independent judiciary; the principle that all authority derived from below and not from above; the new techniques of change and amendment—revolution institutionalized.

Only a mature and sophisticated people could have made it work. That the American people first constructed it and then made it work is a tribute to that maturity and sophistication. Are the American people perhaps less mature politically today than they were in the eighteenth century—less mature and less resourceful? And is a

The basic problem posed by Watergate and all its attendant horrors is neither constitutional nor political; it is moral.

constitutional mechanism rooted in the seventeenth century ideas of the relations of men to government and admirably adapted to the simple needs of the eighteenth and the early nineteenth centuries, inadequate to the importunate exigencies of the twentieth—and the twenty-first?

Some evidence exists to support these fears. There is, for example, the ostentatious decline in political leadership—a decline so spectacular that it is superfluous to rehearse it. Suffice it to ask how, during one generation, a nation with a population only half that of Chicago today managed to produce a George Washington (as compared to Richard Nixon), and a John Adams (as compared to Spiro Agnew)?

And how sobering to recall that every one of the great political and constitutional institutions of the American governmental system was invented before the year 1800 and that not one has been invented or emerged since that time.

We have had constitutional crises before—crises more dangerous than any which threaten us now (for the present crises are in large part contrived). In the past, we have managed to cope with these crises by familiar and legal methods. We used the device of the constitutional amendment and of judicial interpretations, which grew logically out of the original document. We displayed—in the creation and development of political parties and of judicial review—an astonishing resourcefulness in adapting and modernizing the eighteenth century document. How else explain its continuing vitality?

Clearly, the Nixon Administration is not prepared to follow these methods or precedents. It does not resort to formal amendments or rely on judicial review or seek to enlist the Congress in essential adaptations of Constitution and tradition to the needs of the present. It prefers—as by some instinct—to rely on revolutionary methods to achieve what is wishes to accomplish.

Nixon has amended the Constitution—but by personal fiat. He has challenged the principle of the separation of powers. He has propounded the principle that the Chief Executive is above the law and has arrogated to himself a body of privileges and immunities unknown to the Constitution or to law. He has merged—or tried to merge—the office and the man. He has dismissed as anachronistic the protections of the Bill of Rights. He has confessed that he has no confidence in the virtue or the intelligence of the American people, or, for that matter, of their representatives in Congress, and chooses to conceal his own activities, foreign and domestic alike, in a fog of secrecy.

I do not propose to spell out these departures from constitutional orthodoxy and political morality. Indeed, Mr. Nixon has provided us with a convenient symbol in Watergate. Among many things, Watergate symbolizes corruption of the Presidential office and the widespread usurpation of powers by the President; corruption of the democratic processes; growth of a police state which covers its activities in secrecy; and contempt for the guarantees of the Bill of Rights.

Watergate does not symbolize a breakdown of our constitutional system: It is not the Constitution that has failed us but those who persistently violate the document. It is not our political mechanisms which have failed us but those who repudiate traditional political mechanisms. After all, we should not forget that the Constitution and the democratic processes saw us through crises far graver than any which confront us now—the crisis of the survival of the nation in the early years of the Republic, the crisis of the Civil War and Reconstruction, the crisis of the Great Depression and of the greatest of wars. Certainly recent experience does not demonstrate that we should jettison our Constitution and change our political institutions to meet the current difficulties. But rather that Presidents—and the Congress too—should abide by these and execute them.

But does Watergate symbolize a breakdown in the office of the Presidency or a failure of the Presidential system? That system worked pretty well up to now; are the stresses of modern world politics too much for it?

No, we do not need to abandon Presidential government, only to confine it to its constitutional limits. This does require new legislation. All political spending should have really strict limitations, and the government should bear most of the cost of campaigns. The Presidential exercise of war-making power must have a far clearer and firmer limitation. The misuse

and abuse of executive agreement should be curbed in order to return treaty-making to its original constitutional character, and Congress should participate far more vigorously in the conduct of foreign relations. How odd it is that we should have forgotten the *advice* in "advice and consent."

Secrecy in the Executive Offices should end except for genuine emergencies during time of war. Executive privilege and executive immunity—two fictions concocted in the last generation but unknown to the Constitution—should also end. And while we are about it, we should, in my opinion, abolish the useless office of Vice-President —a kind of appendix to the Presidency which has no function.

The basic problem posed by Watergate and all its attendant horrors is neither constitutional nor political; it is moral. It is not a problem posed by an Administration in Washington; it is one posed by the American people.

After all, we can never get away from the most elementary fact: The American people reelected Mr. Nixon by a majority of nearly 18 million votes. Either they did not know what kind of man he was, in which case they were inexcusably negligent or inexcusably naive, or they did know what kind of man he was and did not care or perhaps liked him as he was—as some Americans still like him the way he is. The latter explanation is probably nearer to the truth.

Did he not—indeed, does he not—represent qualities in the American character that are widespread and even taken for granted? In himself and in the curious collection of associates he gathered around him, he represents the acquisitive society, the exploitative society, the aggrandizing society. He represents what is artificial, meretricious, and manipulative. He represents the American preference for the synthetic over the real, for advertising over the product, for public relations over character, for spectator sports over active games, and for spectator politics over participatory democracy.

He represents, too, the widespread American conviction that anything can be bought: culture, education, happiness, a winning football team—or the Presidency.

The present mood of disillusionment seeks a scapegoat. The most nearly universal scapegoat is, needless to say, the schools. After all, did they not "train" the generation that has come to maturity—if *maturity* is the mot juste? Clearly, if we have failed, it is because our schools have failed by not having raised up that generation of enlightened citizens that Jefferson was confident they would produce.

Instead, they raised up a generation which maintained in power administrations that pursued for 10 years a meaningless, futile, and barbarous war against a people 10,000 miles away; which accepted uncritically the notion that God or Providence had somehow delegated the United States to serve as policeman to the world; which acquiesced in the increasing arrogance of the military establishment; which looked with indifference on the erosion of constitutional government and of the guarantees of the Bill of Rights; and which looked with general incomprehension on an Administration with a record of duplicity, chicanery, mendacity, and criminal turpitude without parallel in American history.

Clearly, education has gone astray. But the basic confusion here—one which permeates the thought even of the educational establishment—is the confusion between education and schooling. Almost from the beginning, Americans lacked most of those institutions which in the Old World took on the task of teaching the young what they needed to know in adult life: the church, the guild, the farm, the forge, the class system, the extended family. Therefore, Americans have tended to put more and more responsibility onto schools.

Because they were reluctant to put down roots, to form permanent attachments, to build up networks of social control, because they were always on the move—from the Old World to the New, from the seaboard to one frontier after another, from the farm to the city, from job to job, from church to church—they failed to create institutions and influences to provide the social, cultural, and moral training for the young. These responsibilities, too, they foisted off on schools—or allowed to go by default. In short, Americans asked the schools to do what in the Old World was done by a dozen ancient and powerful institutions.

But the problem goes even deeper. Americans, particularly in the twentieth century, not only abandoned much of their responsibility for education by requiring schools to provide both formal and informal education; they also foisted on the schools responsibility for inculcating a set of values and of moral standards different from and almost antithetical to those practiced by society. The more virtuous the standards they taught, the more effectively they were thought to perform the function of a surrogate conscience which permitted society to follow its own ways while consoling itself with the illusion that the schools would train up a generation with higher standards.

Thus, society requires schools to teach that all men are equally entitled to life, liberty, and happiness but makes clear by its conduct that it does not intend to take that

The great question that confronts us is whether the American Constitution can continue to function in the modern world.

promise seriously or to apply it to the ordinary affairs of life. Society applauds the principle of racial equality but does not itself provide the young with persuasive examples of its practice, knowing well that the example is more powerful than the principle.

Society rewards pupils who can recite the Bill of Rights, but it shows no serious interest in the application of these rights to tiresome minority groups. Society rejoices when schools celebrate (as they are expected to do) examples by great men like a Franklin or an Adams of placing service to the commonwealth above service to the self, but it rewards private enterprise rather than public enterprise.

It expects schools to teach the primary value of the mind and the spirit, but itself prefers the rewards of more materialistic teaching. It expects schools to bring home to the young the great truth that justice is the end of government but itself practices injustice in almost every area of public life. It expects schools to teach respect for the law but elects to the highest offices a President and a Vice-President who display contempt for the law. It encourages schools to teach the beauty of peace but exalts war, wages war, maintains the largest military establishment in the world, and spends more money on the military than does any other nation.

If our educational enterprise has failed us, if it is in disarray, it is in part because we have asked it to perform a miracle: to teach the young to understand and to improve the world they live in, while we ourselves display little awareness of our fiduciary obligation to the future. Much of public education today is a massive exercise in hypocrisy, and it is folly to suppose that the young do not know this.

It is against this background that we must consider the demands for reshaping society that are now made of educators and the schools. Educators have of course long been aware of the dichotomy between what is taught in the schools and what is held up for approval and emulation by so many other and more powerful institutions of society. It was an awareness of this bifurcation of education that, a generation or so back, persuaded the Teachers College group (John Dewey as inspiration; George Counts, Kilpatrick, and Rugg as activists) to launch a crusade to reconstruct society. For all its rhetoric and its high-mindedness, that crusade was a failure. And no wonder. It is very difficult for the part to reconstruct the whole, and the experience of our schools with such direct crusading has not been encouraging.

What emerged should have been clear from the beginning. Society does not produce good citizens by teaching civics but by providing the young with the spectacle of a society devoted to the commonwealth. Society does not develop internationalists by teaching a bit of the history of other nations but by immersing the young in the great traditions of the past and of other civilizations and by conducting foreign policy with respect for other nations and peoples.

Rarely in the history of education have so many been exposed to so much with results so meager. If we are to judge by results of the past 40 years, this enterprise of relying on schools to reform society, politics, and morals by direct teaching has been a failure.

What seems reasonably clear is that schools—separated from society and asked to teach things in which society has no interest and to inculcate moral values which society repudiates—cannot reform society. (What is more, schools cannot reform education, for most education takes place outside the classroom.) Society, which created a dual system of education, seems content with the perpetuation of that system. Only if society recognizes (as it did briefly in eighteenth century America and in the America of Horace Mann and Henry Barnard) its responsibility to *paideia* will it permit its institutions to work in harmony with its schools.

Yet all is not desperate, for if society imposes its moral standards, its habits and even its will on schools, schools in turn impose their standards on society. Schools are not merely the mirror of society, nor the passive agents. They are part of the formative process, and if society requires the schools to act as its conscience, they sometimes surprise society by doing just that. Schools have in fact exercised a decisive influence on American society—in advancing national unity, for example, in functioning (far more successfully than business or social institutions) as a

melting pot, and so on.

The educational establishment should involve itself in politics—that is in the clarification of those great issues which concern the life and the soul of our society and of the world. These issues concern themselves with the survival of our commonwealth and, ultimately, of the commonwealth of mankind.

More than almost any other group, teachers stand in a continuous fiduciary relationship to oncoming generations. We have both a moral obligation and a professional one to influence policies. This we have not heretofore fulfilled to the extent that we might do so.

The agenda I submit is the essense of conservatism. After all, are not teachers by their very nature conservative? What is it they are about but to conserve the learning of the past for the present and the future, to conserve civilization as we have known it, to conserve children that they may grow up into useful and self-respecting citizens?

The first item of conservatism must be to conserve nature, to conserve the natural resources of the country, to pass on to future generations their rightful natural inheritance.

A second item in any policy of conservatism is to conserve mankind. This means controlling population so that we are not threatened with famine and the internecine wars which will inevitably come if hundreds of millions of peoples are without food while more favored peoples indulge in gluttony and waste. It means providing a humane environment in which the young can grow to maturity and usefulness and happiness. It means making available an education which can go far to remedy the glaring inequalities of our own society and of societies elsewhere. In a broad way it means the creation of a just society. This is not only a moral obligation, not only a practical obligation, but it is in fact a constitutional obligation.

A third item on the agenda of conservatism is closely related to the second: the conservation of life, of our limited resources, and of civilization by the avoidance of war.

Since 1945, we have spent billions on war and "defense" and are even now considering a military budget of about $90 billion. Far more serious is an armaments race which seems to be quite out of hand. The decision of the Department of Defense, endorsed by the Congress, to develop MIRV's may set off a new, more expensive, more open-ended, and potentially more lethal phase of the Cold War, which otherwise might be on the way to a thaw.

A fourth item is the preservation of those freedoms without which a democratic society such as ours cannot survive—freedom of speech, of the press, of assembly and petition; freedom of the academy and of science to pursue unhindered their search for truth; freedom from massive invasions of privacy by the new instruments of surveillance.

A fifth item is a restoration of faith in the viability of our democratic and constitutional institutions, a revitalization of participatory democracy, a reassertion of standards of what used to be called civic virtue, and the creation of an educational (not just an academic), social and moral system which will discover and encourage the kind of leadership we must have in order to solve our problems.

Schools cannot carry through this program. Teachers cannot carry through this program. If it is to be carried through, it must be by the creation of a great network of private, voluntary organizations —such as fraternal associations, the PTA, and the NEA. These organizations must be ones whose function is not primarily self-advancement, which are not by their nature part of politics, but which are and must be very involved in the great political issues of the survival of our society and of civilization as a whole.

I close with these lines from a student of fifth-century Athens:

"In the contest which we are going to watch, fighting will bring no joy and victory no triumph. For the battle which Athens has now to face is not against the Lacedaemonians or any hosts of armored men, but against the foe in her own household, the desires and ambitions she herself has nurtured." □

Dr. Commager discussed this topic at greater length at the 1974 Critical Issues Conference preceding the Chicago NEA Convention. (© 1974 by Henry Steele Commager.) A complete cassette recording of Dr. Commager's speech is available from the NEA Order Dept., Academic Bldg., Saw Mill Road, West Haven, CT 06516. Prices: $6. (Stock No. 1932-6—10.)

SOME WATERGATE-RELATED MATERIALS FOR TEACHERS

(1) *What Do We Tell the Children? Watergate and the Future of Our Country* by Helen D. Wise. Braziller. 116 pp. $6.95; paper, $2.95. As stated in the foreword, NEA Past President Wise has written this book in an effort to tell "what happened, why it happened, and what must be done if our system of government is to survive." She addresses the book "to parents and teachers who sooner or later, in one way or another, must answer questions about Watergate posed by our young people."

(2) A packet of instructional materials keyed to the theme of "Helping Teachers Teach" about crises surrounding Watergate and related matters has been developed by NEA Instruction and Professional Development, in cooperation with the Office of Program Evaluation. For a description and costs of the materials, which have been field-tested by teachers, write to NEA-IPD.

Watergate and the Corruption of Language

By ARTHUR M. SCHLESINGER, JR.
Schweitzer Professor of Humanities, City University of New York; Distinguished Historian/Author; Former Presidential Assistant.

Watergate is, in effect, a moment of truth for American democracy. It brings us at last face-to-face with ourselves. It makes us confront the contradictions between our creed and our behavior, between the values we profess and those by which we live. It compels us to recognize what we have been doing to our standards of public trust and obligation. If we meet our responsibilities, future citizens will probably look back on Watergate as one of the more providential events in the history of the Republic.

The effect of Watergate in raising the moral standards of our politics has begun to be visible on every side. As Vietnam instructed us, at horrible cost, in the limits of our wisdom and power in foreign affairs, so Watergate instructs us, at considerably less cost, in the limits of wisdom and power in the Presidency. It reminds us of the desperate need to restore the original balance of the Constitution—the balance between Presidential power and Presidential accountability. In so doing, it has brought back into public consciousness the basic documents under which our government was organized.

The Constitution, the debates of the Constitutional Convention, the *Federalist Papers*—how many of us read them with serious and sustained attention in the years before Vietnam and Watergate? We tended to regard them, save for occasional invocations of the Bill of Rights, as documents of essentially historical interest and left them undisturbed on the shelf. Now, Senators, Congressmen, columnists, editors, educators—everyone, it would seem, except for Presidential lawyers—are turning the dusty pages in order to find out what Madison said in the Convention about the war-making power or how Hamilton defined the grounds for impeachment in the 65th *Federalist*.

What an opportunity this is for American teachers! For education is most effective when the student's mind is most engaged, excited, and perplexed. We may not get another opportunity like this in our lifetime, so we must take full advantage of it. Let us begin, for example, with the basic medium of education—that is, language.

The late 18th century was the Age of Enlightenment in America. The cooling breeze of reason tempered the hot work of composition and argument. The result was the prose of the Founding Fathers—lucid, measured, and felicitous prose, marked by Augustan virtues of harmony, balance, and elegance.

People not only wrote this noble language. They also read it. The essays in defense of the Constitution signed Publius appeared week after week in New York newspapers during the winter of 1787-88; and the demand was so great that the first 36 *Federalist Papers* were published in book form while

the rest were still coming out in the press.

No doubt the birth of a nation is a stimulus to lofty utterance. The Founding Fathers lived, moreover, in an age when politicians could say in public more or less what they believed in private. If their view of human nature was realistic rather than sentimental, they were not obliged to pretend otherwise.

But this great generation was not immune to temptation. When the Founding Fathers began speaking of, and to, the largest interest in a primarily agricultural nation, their tone changed. Those who lived on the soil, Jefferson could write, were "the chosen people of God . . . whose breasts He has made His peculiar deposit for substantial and genuine virtue." As society grew more diversified and new interests claimed their place in the sun, each in time had to be courted and flattered as the Jeffersonians had courted and flattered the agriculturists. The desire for success at the polls thus sentimentalized and cheapened the language of politics.

But politics was only an aspect of a deeper problem. Society as a whole was taking forms that warred against clarity of thought and integrity of language. "A man's power to connect his thought with its proper symbol, and so to utter it," said Emerson, "depends on the simplicity of his character, that is, upon his love of truth and his desire to communicate it without loss. The corruption of man is followed by the corruption of language. When simplicity of character and the sovereignty of ideas is broken up by the prevalence of secondary desires, the desire of riches, of pleasure, of power, and of praise . . . words are perverted to stand for things which are not."

"The prevalence of secondary desires"—the desire of riches, pleasure, power, and praise—began to divert words from the work of expression to the work of gratification. No one observed the impact of a mobile and egalitarian society on language more acutely than Tocqueville. Democracy, he argued, inculcated a positive preference for ambiguity and a dangerous addiction to the inflated style. "An abstract term," Tocqueville wrote, "is like a box with a false bottom; you may put in what ideas you please and take them out again without being observed."

And so words, divorced from objects, became instruments less of communication than of deception. Unscrupulous orators tried to please one faction by words and the contending faction by their meaning. They did not always succeed. "The word *liberty* in the mouth of Webster," Emerson wrote with contempt after the Compromise of 1850, "sounds like the word *love* in the mouth of a courtezan." (Another of Emersons nonchalant observations works beautifully in our own day: "The louder he talked of his honor, the faster we counted our spoons.")

Other developments hastened the spreading disassociation of words from meaning, of language from reality. This rise of mass communications, the growth of large organizations and novel technologies, the invention of advertising and public relations, even, alas, the professionalization of educators—all contributed to linguistic pollution, upsetting the ecological relationship between words and their environment.

In our own time, the purity of language is under unrelenting attack from every side—from professors as well as from politicians, from educators as well as from advertising men, from men of the cloth as well as from men of the sword, and, not least, from those indulgent compilers of modern dictionaries who propound the suicidal thesis that all usages are equal and all correct.

A living language can never be stabilized, but a serious language can never cut words altogether adrift from meanings. The alchemy that changes words into their opposites has never had more adept practitioners than it has today. We used to object when the communists described dictatorships as "people's democracies" or North Korean aggression as the act of a "peace-loving" nation. But we are no slouches ourselves in the art of verbal metamorphosis. There was often not much that was "free" about many of the states that made up what we used to call the Free World.

Social fluidity, moral pretension, political and literary demagoguery, corporate and academic bureaucratization, and a false conception of democracy are leading us into semantic chaos. We owe to Vietnam and Watergate a belated recognition of the fact that we are in linguistic as well as political crisis and that the two may be connected.

"In our time," Orwell wrote in his classic essay on this subject, "political speech and writing are largely the defense of the indefensible." During the first 20 of the nearly 30 years since Orwell wrote "Politics and the English Language," Americans comfortably applied his biting aphorism to fascists, Stalinists, and other obvious miscreants. Then Vietnam forced us to apply it to ourselves. In the early 1960's, we had systematically staved off reality by allowing a hideous military-bureaucratic patois to protect our sensibilities from the ghastly things we were doing in Indochina. This was the period when television began to provide a sharper access to reality than words, and Marshall McLuhan had his day in court.

The military-bureaucratic jargon could be blamed on generals. But we did not perhaps fully realize before Watergate the utter debasement of language in the

What an opportunity this is for American teachers! We must take full advantage of it.

mouths of our present civilian leaders.

Groping to describe the existing state of White House prose, that degenerate melangé of military, public relations, and locker-room jargon, Richard N. Goodwin aptly calls it "the bureaucratization of the criminal class"—as if the Godfather had learned to talk in the accents of a top government official. When one reads of "stroking sessions," of "toughing it out," of "the limited let-it-all hang out," of "How do you handle that PR-wise?" one feels that verbicide should be an impeachable offense.

But what is worse than the manipulation of language, which after all displays a certain low ingenuity, is the manipulation of meaning. The Presidential speech preceding the release of the expurgated transcripts was grammatically correct, but it proclaimed in tones of ringing sincerity that the transcripts show exactly the opposite of what in fact the transcripts do show. "He unveils a swamp," as the *New Yorker* well put it, "and instructs us to see a garden of flowers."

This account, sketchy as it is, of the degradation of political discourse is bound to raise a disturbing question. May it be, as Tocqueville seemed to think, that such deterioration is inherent in democracy? Does the compulsion to win riches, pleasure, power, and praise in a fluid and competitive society make the perversion of meaning and the corruption of language inevitable?

Though one can see factors in American life that have promoted linguistic decay, a moment's reflection suggests that the process is by no means confined to the United States or to democracies. In fact, language degenerates a good deal more rapidly and thoroughly in communist and fascist states because the control of language is a necessary step toward the control of minds. (Orwell made this brilliantly clear in *1984*.) Nowhere is meaning more ruthlessly manipulated; nowhere is language more stereotyped, mechanical, implacably banal, and systematically false; nowhere is it more purged of personal nuance and human inflection than in Russia and China.

In democracies, the assault on language is, by comparison, piecemeal, sporadic, and unorganized. And, above all, democracy has the decisive advantage that the preservation of intellectual freedom creates the opportunity for counterattack. Democracy always has the chance to redeem its language. This may be an essential step toward the redemption of its politics.

Madison once described the American experiment as the replacement of accident and force by reflection and choice in the processes of government. The responsibility of Presidents is to define real choices and explain soberly why one course is to be preferred to another—and, in doing so, to make language a means not of deception but of communication.

Yet Presidents cannot easily rise above the society they serve and lead. If we are to restore the relationship between words and meaning, we must begin to clean up the whole linguistic environment. This does not mean a crusade for Standard English or a campaign to resurrect the stately rhythms of the *Federalist Papers*. Little could be more quixotic than an attempt to hold a rich and flexible language like American English to the forms and definitions of a specific time, class, or race. But some neologisms are better than others, and here one can demand, particularly in influential places, a modicum of discrimination.

What is more important is that words, whether new or old, regain a relationship to reality. Vietnam and Watergate have given Americans, I believe, a hunger for bluntness and candor.

Educators have a peculiar obligation to the integrity of language. They should not be timid about discharging their wrath against the cant of our age, though they should be careful that outrage does not lead them to the same excesses they condemn in others. Language is not just a part of the educator's kit of tools; it is the medium that organizes categories of thought, shapes the development of ideas, and incorporates a philosophy of existence. As we combat the corruption of language, we work for the health of the social order. □

Dr. Schlesinger spoke on this topic at greater length at the Critical Issues Conference preceding the 1974 NEA Convention. A complete cassette recording of his speech is available from the NEA Order Dept., Academic Bldg., Saw Mill Road, West Haven, CT 06516. Price: $6. (Stock No. 1938-5—00)

SPECIAL FEATURE ON CHILDREN WITH PROBLEMS

The Turned Off

By GARY PHILLIPS
Guidance Counselor and Director of Pontoon III (Alternative School), Marion (Indiana) High School

The Marion (Indiana) Community Schools are conducting a Title III-funded project known as Pontoon III. Located at Marion High School, the program involves students selected from grades nine to 12 who have been passive to the learning process or who have resisted it.

In the mornings, all students take English, social studies, and mathematics in two-hour "open" classes. In each of these academic areas, students have a voice in choosing concentrated studies and in evaluating their work.

Options available to students each afternoon include: (a) academic electives at Marion High School, (b) community work-study activities, and (c) volunteer service in the community.

The project's major purpose is to change student apathy into enthusiasm for learning and to redirect student activism into constructive educational endeavors.

Described below are the types and characteristics of students in the project with a description of techniques that the staff has found effective with these young people. This informal report makes no pretense of profundity. It contains many suggestions based on observation and direct experience and does not necessarily reflect a particular educational philosophy.

Rebellious students. Some students have such hostility and anger for any authority that they refuse to do anything they are told to do. They stubbornly resist any direction—especially if it pleases someone in authority. They violate rules and try to beat the system. Their most important need is to prove that an authority (parent, teacher, policeman) is wrong. Success in any other endeavor is secondary to this need.

We have worked well with these students by never asking or telling them to do anything. They are on their own. The teacher refuses to discipline students, explaining to them that they alone are responsible for their behavior, and the teacher's function is to assist them in learning if they desire help.

Because these youngsters can usually accept peer censorship, the student discipline committee is effective with them.

Rebellious students often learn by being presented with options. Because they will refuse to do a specific assignment, we hand them many possible ones and allow them to choose or create their own (with teacher approval).

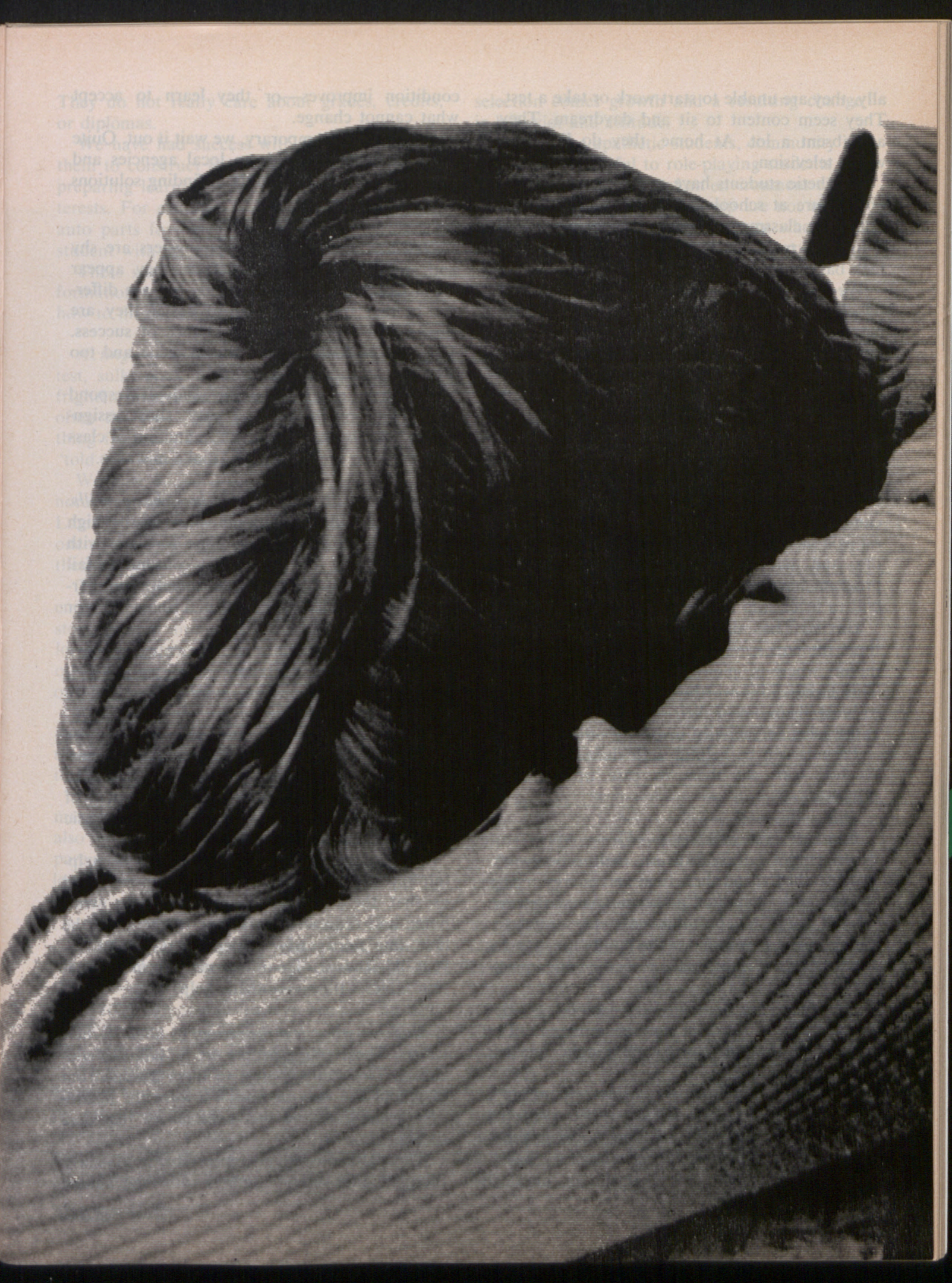
These adolescents can build warm relationships with adults as long as the older people are not judgmental. These students will respond to a challenge, but to present one to them is risky because of the hostility it may arouse. For example, if the teacher says, "Sam, you could never make the academic honor roll," Sam may be stubborn enough to do it just to prove the teacher wrong, or he may respond that he would rather fail than make good grades—especially if he senses the teacher really wants him to succeed.

The teacher should treat youngsters of this sort offhandedly. If they sleep, let them sleep; if they fail, that's their choice. Once they sense that the teacher is not using their success to prove something, they may choose to succeed.

The teacher should not get involved with these students' parents lest the students see the teacher and the parent in a conspiracy to make them successful. They'll fail just to prove the little scheme will not work.

Apathetic students. These young people are hesitant to act or move in any direction. Gener-

Because of the enthusiastic response to the Special Feature on Children with Problems in our January-February 1974 issue, we present herewith a follow-up special feature which focuses on children who are turned off by school, children with reading problems, and youth who have been incarcerated.



ally, they are unable to start work or take a test. They seem content to sit and daydream. They are absent a lot. At home, they do little but watch television.

Apathetic students have experienced criticism and failure at school and at home. They often imagine a classmate is waiting for them to make a mistake to laugh at them. These youngsters lack basic skills despite average ability.

We have found these students can be helped by eliminating the competition and embarrassment of the traditional classroom and substituting individualized instruction. They will admit their deficiencies to one they trust and will work quietly alone with an assignment that guarantees success. They need constant praise and assurance that they can succeed.

Apathetic students usually have a private world of fantasy in which they live most of the time. By accepting these youngsters, the teacher can enter their private world and use this interest as a means for improving their reading, writing, and math. For example, teachers in our program have used a student's interest in football to teach him basic math.

Our staff has also found it helpful to involve these students in volunteer activities in the community where people respond favorably to them. This success in a worthwhile activity does much to bring them out of their shells and to stir their enthusiasm for activity involving others.

Parents can be helpful with these students if teachers can get them to ease up on their criticism.

Students with personal problems. Many students cannot concentrate on their schoolwork because they spend their time and energy trying to cope with nonschool problems. An adolescent who is going to court the next day or whose father has just abandoned the family may not be interested in Shakespeare or mathematics problems.

Preoccupation with physical factors also deters learning. A student may be thinking: "I'm too fat" or "I'm too short" or "I'm ugly" or "I've got a pimply face."

We become counselors to these youngsters. They need someone to listen to their concerns and help them sort out solutions to their problem. Our program provides a temporary haven for them until their personal life or physical condition improves—or they learn to accept what cannot change.

If the crisis is temporary, we wait it out. Quite often we make referrals to local agencies and get involved with the family in finding solutions to their problems.

Defeated students. These youngsters are shy and withdrawn. On the surface, they appear much like the apathetic students but are different in that they are eager to act if they are shown that they have some chance of success. Defeated students are too shy to recite and too afraid to ask questions.

We have found that these students respond to warm conversation and easy, short assignments. We also kid with them in and out of class and show we are human and make mistakes.

Students with ability who lack basic skills. The teacher in a traditional class at the high school level does not have time to work with these teenagers. Therefore, they continue to fail while the counselor continues to tell their parents that they have an IQ of 110 or 105 or whatever.

Quite often students in this category have perceptual motor problems, emotional blocks, or poor hearing or vision, which cause failure in academic subjects.

We have found these students advance quite rapidly in an individualized setting with programmed materials and other personalized aids. They usually see the need for improvement of skills and welcome the chance to work on basic math and English.

The parents of such youngsters can be helpful. Parents of students in our program have told us that their son or daughter brought work home and requested assistance of them for the first time since early elementary days. An 18-year-old student of ours learned his multiplication tables with his mother's help.

Students who view the school as alien to their values. These young people see no point to education. The adults closest to them dropped out of school and may be hostile toward the institution because of the bad experiences they had there.

These students are uncomfortable in the classroom because school conflicts with their values.

They do not really care about grades, credits, or diplomas.

We have had success with them by allowing them to construct their own curriculum and by preparing learning materials geared to their interests. For example, we have used catalogs of auto parts for English and math lessons for a student with an interest in cars.

These students often respond to practical information such as where to borrow money or how to fill out job applications.

Acting-out students. These youngsters protest, sulk, pout, fight, show strong emotion to frighten others, and threaten. Their parents are often the kind of people who "don't take anything from anybody" and brag about how they "told off" someone at work.

We have found it effective to completely ignore such students when they are angry in class. Later on, we confront them unemotionally on a one-to-one basis and discuss the reasons for their anger.

The acting-out students don't stop their threatening behavior completely, but eventually they stop using it in our classroom because it no longer gets them attention. They still "tell off" other teachers in the halls and explode at home or wherever else the tool is effective.

When they are not upset, they can and will learn. However, we find that it is futile to give them assignments when they are busy proving to themselves that the world is against them.

We find that acting-out students may destroy materials in the room when left alone. They are also prone to delinquency. If we can get the parents to admit that their children have a problem, we recommend referral to a mental health facility.

Role players. Some students assume roles—the class clown, the bully, the delinquent, and the flirt—that bring them peer status. Many of these roles are self-destructive because the students become more concerned with their roles than with succeeding in their schoolwork.

When placed in an open classroom, role players may find their old games are not effective in the same way they were in the traditional classroom because the attention of 30 students and a teacher cannot be concentrated on them. They are forced to select a new behavior, and with that selection comes growth and a resulting change in behavior and attitude.

As with the apathetic students, community involvement is helpful to role-playing students because they become part of an environment where their games with the peer group are not useful.

These students can and will learn when they stop spending their time playing out a role.

Students who fail by choice. Some students feel they gain more by failing in school than by succeeding. Their reasons for failing are deep-seated and usually involve punishing themselves and their parents.

I recall one particular teenager who had had many failing grades all through school. When we stopped communicating with his parents, whom he hated, the boy began earning B's and C's and voluntarily enrolled in a doubletime curriculum.

Since these students are determined not to get good grades, we allow them to grade themselves. This gives them the opportunity to learn and yet to continue to fail until they no longer feel the need for academic failure.

We either do not communicate with parents or we counsel them not to mention school or the student's progress in discussions at home. Although these adolescents may need psychological help to resolve their deep-seated conflicts, the teacher can help them learn by abandoning traditional teacher roles.

Drug users. Students who use drugs are either up or down. In either condition, learning is difficult. They may have good intentions but are unable to complete a task. They are frequently truant.

We have had less success with this type than any of the others. However, the drug users in our program have, for the most part, remained in school, which is probably a compliment to the environment of our classroom. Ultimately, they are better off in school than on the street, but they cannot exist for very long in a traditional classroom, since they cannot sit still and concentrate.

Working with this student is largely a counseling problem. Referral to a specialist is certainly advisable. We recommend counseling with parents to help them understand the student's problem. □

Poor Readers–I

By **DEBORAH W. MEIER**
Open Classroom Coordinator for District 2, New York City, and Adviser, City College Open Classroom Workshop Center.

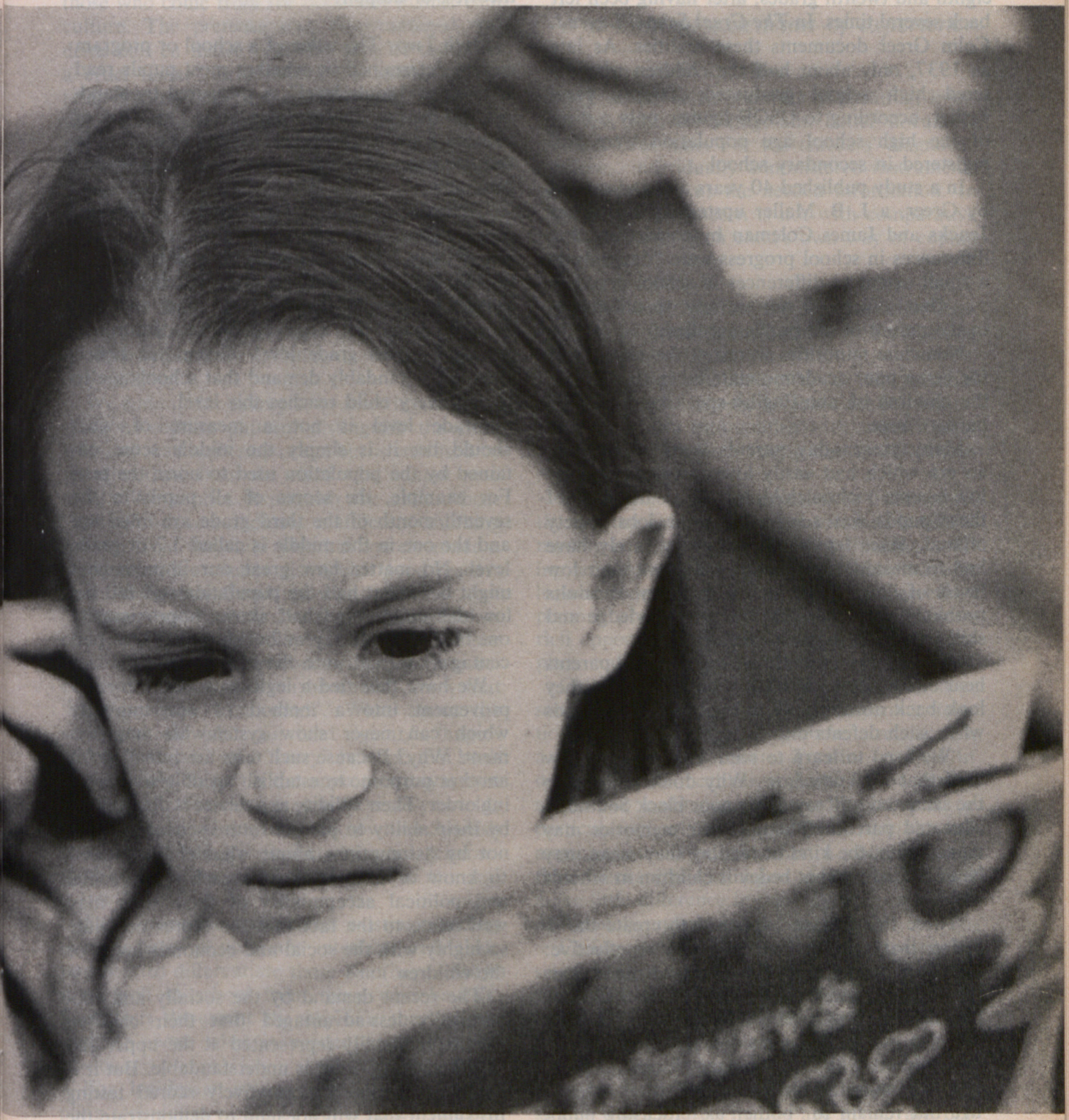
There is, at present, a quiet but determined campaign to eliminate the much publicized improvements in inner-city schools. Disappearing are such reforms as smaller classes, preschool education, subsidized parental involvement, and other attempts to create a more humane setting. To some extent, this retreat masquerades as a reasonable response to reality: The reforms, we are told, failed to produce "results." The proof? Most inner-city children still read inadequately.

Unfortunately, this assertion gains legitimacy because of the widespread acceptance of the following kinds of myths regarding reading: (a) Schools used to teach children how to read in the "good old days"; (b) the success of the schools can be measured by their capacity to bring everyone up to "grade level" in reading; (c) the best way to do this is to start teaching reading as early as possible; and (d) schools should concentrate on nothing but reading skills until pupils master them. We need to dispel such myths, not only in order to halt the dismantling of reforms, but in order to choose the best kind of reforms. Let us consider each myth in turn.

Myth One: Children, including the ethnics of yesteryear, we are told, once learned how to read in school. The nonwhite minorities of today are the exceptions. The fault thus lies either in them or in our new-fangled methods.

In fact, inadequate as schools are now, they succeed better than they did in "the good old days."

When critics speak disparagingly of the fact that many students finish high school reading four years below grade level, they forget that if the poorest readers are really functioning at an



eighth grade reading level, they are doing well in yesterday's terms.

Up through the 1930's, most lower-income children dropped out of school between the eighth and twelfth grades, after having been left back several times. In *The Great School Legend,* Colin Greer documents these realities. As late as 1937, only about half the children who entered high school graduated. Twenty years earlier, according to USOE figures, only a third of the high school age population were still registered in secondary school.

In a study published 40 years ago and quoted by Greer, a J. B. Maller upstaged Christopher Jencks and James Coleman by concluding that differences in school progress were "due only to a small extent to differences in school practices . . . [but] chiefly, if not entirely, to differences in the nature of the pupils enrolled."

Nonwhite minorities were not the ones noted for being poor academic material in this report; the children of non-English-speaking European parents were.

Many present-day parents were products of an era which had vastly lower expectations for low-income schoolchildren. The literacy of these pupils was adequate for the jobs society offered. Since leaving school, they rarely have had to master reading material above their low levels of literacy. In fact, a majority of adults probably rarely use the kind of knowledge and skill measured in most reading tests.

When these essentially nonreading parents hear of their children's low scores, however, they look back nostalgically to their own childhoods when such defeats did not exist.

"We used to learn to read. Our teachers saw to it that we knew how. Why don't schools do the same today?" say many poor black Southern-educated parents. Though their memories may be accurate, the kind of reading they mean may be unrelated to what bedevils children in schools today.

Three things have happened to create the illusion that schools used to be more effective: (a) Parents and employers demand more years of schooling and more credentials, thus altering our definition of acceptable levels of literacy; (b) test scores are considerably more public; (c) children with academic or discipline problems no longer drop out of our sight at an early age but remain to "bother us," focusing public attention on the failures instead of merely the successes.

Nostalgia for an imagined past can only lead to reactionary educational "solutions," racist theories, or despair.

Myth Two: The value of a school or program can be determined by whether most pupils read at least on "grade level" as measured by standardized reading achievement tests. This view of success is not only popularly held but explicit in the language of most federal- and state-funded programs.

Given the fact that few experts or laymen agree about what we mean by "reading" or about what Johnny "should" be able to read, it is difficult to develop tools of measurement. The public thinks such tools already exist and that they are based on a professionally determined standard called grade level. Given this belief, they understandably demand that schools see to it that every child reaches this level.

Grade level is not a measure of what should be; it is simply the middle score obtained by the population used to norm the test. For example, the scores of all pupils in the seventh month of the third grade are lined up, and the one in the middle is called 3.7 or grade level. No matter how great our improvement might be, about half the population will fall below this middle and half above, approximately one-fifth will fall a year below, etc. These percentages are built into the test design.

We have thus tied a legitimate desire for improvement into a method of accountability which can never show systemwide improvement! Why? Because such tests are intended for another purpose: to establish an objective ranking order. Their validity as a device is determined by their ability to predict future school success, not by assumptions about what children need to know or schools should teach. (The social and political acceptability of these tests may well relate to the fact that the scores correlate so highly with the social and economic levels of the children.)

The recent demand by the socially and economically less-advantaged that their children should be equally represented at the upper end of this ranking order is understandable. But it is hard to imagine a normatively scored testing instrument that will not tend to demonstrate the

obvious: Having advantages is an advantage. This will be further compounded by the fact that any standardized normed device is inevitably weighted in favor of the specific advantages of those who come from the dominant mainstream culture. The pretense that disadvantaged students can en masse beat this type of testing is a cruel hoax. Furthermore, the results of the tests are used to further compound disadvantages, turning what might have been transient or trivial handicaps into fatal ones. Testing not merely documents "what is" but affects what "could be."

Not only are the tests self-defeating as a measure of school improvement, but they also cannot tell us what we need to know about individual children. Aside from the well-documented biases in their content and language and the ambiguities of their format, they are not even necessarily accurate in telling us whether a child can read.

We cannot, for example, by knowing a child's score or scoring pattern, distinguish the child who can read a given passage but is confused by the directions from the child who cannot read at all. We cannot distinguish the child whose "wrong" answers indicate a different thinking pattern from the child who has merely made a wild guess. We cannot distinguish good readers from well-coached and test-wise readers.

What should we make of a test in which a child who can read "clay" and "mud" will be labeled deficient in vocabulary or decoding because at the age of seven he doesn't know that "clay is made from mud"? What about the seven-year-old who can read "giant," "huge," "fierce," "mean," and "scary" but does not realize that only "huge" is the appropriate synonym for "giant"? Should we classify eight-year-olds as poor readers if they do not know that Spanish is spoken in Mexico or that the word "characters" could refer to digits in the Arabic numeral system?

Such nonsense permeates existing reading tests because it does not interfere with their purpose: to differentiate those who have always done well in school from those who haven't. Such tests document the obvious; they tell us nothing about what is needed to change the obvious.

For legitimate system accountability, sampling techniques would be better. Such random testing would be less subject to cheating, interfere less with schooling, and better document changes over time. For the teachers' diagnostic purposes, individually administered instruments would best give us the needed information. In such tests, the concern is not with comparative scores but with each child's own way of coping with a task.

Children need school experiences that support the reading habit and an environment in which reading is a natural extension of experience.

Myth Three: We can overcome the handicaps suffered by disadvantaged children by teaching them reading skills earlier.

This widely held theory has a thin relationship to a truth: The early years are important. However it runs into conflict with another fact: Repeated failure at a young age is difficult to reverse.

Children need school experiences that support the reading habit, and an environment in which reading is a natural extension of thinking, talking, and doing. Disadvantaged children have at least an equal need for a broad and carefully planned program of oral language experiences, rich opportunities to engage in representational play, and interaction with peers and adults.

Children who lack sufficient verbal fluency, some intuitive grasp of symbol-meaning relations, and strong motivation to be a reader risk a very high rate of failure. To stint on these in order to teach mechanical skills a little earlier may make reading readiness scores go up for a particular school or child, but the cost in the end may be enormous. Whether a child masters these mechanical techniques at seven or 10 need make little difference in the long run if we don't deliberately and arbitrarily make it so.

Children who master reading at 10 instead of seven have lost, at worst, three years out of a lifetime of reading. Given the limited usefulness for most young children of reading to extend knowledge or to experience life, these three years appear far from critical. The research done by Jean Piaget and his followers demonstrates that children in this age group are pri-

marily in need of concrete operational experiences, of active interaction with the world. Young children who primarily depended upon "book learning" for intellectual growth would be in sad shape.

At around the age of 12, pupils can be expected to use written material to extend and enrich their studies in important ways. This expectation is legitimate and healthy, and those who can attain it earlier should certainly be encouraged to do so. But the capacity of youngsters to meet the expectations of the higher grades need *not* correlate with the age at which they began to read.

The correlations that exist today are largely man-made, the result of how we deal with the differences between children. By changes in our school practices, we can go a long way to reverse the correlations that now persist: for example, by eliminating all those things that label children as inadequate because they are slower at starting to read and by trying to get rid of all those things that deprive young children of the experiences they *do* need to catch up later on.

Myth Four: Schools should concentrate on reading skills until children achieve mastery. Then and only then should we worry about content, aesthetics, social interaction, or higher thinking abilities, say the hard-headed "realists."

My neighbor came over one night for help in reading a bridge column in the daily paper. Did he need phonics drill? Practice at reading short passages on assorted topics and answering multiple-choice questions? Practice at selecting the main idea or choosing the best title?

No. He came to me for help because he was aware that I knew more than he did about bridge, not about reading. He was also aware that when it comes to reading a stock market option written in legalese, he was more at ease than I.

Current reading tests used to assess children's reading abilities are based on equally obscure subjects. These tests deal superficially with the children's ability to understand *particular* concepts, topics, and jargon. Success relates too often to the use of particular types of abstract thinking, or familiarity with certain areas of knowledge, rather than to reading. They thus do not reflect the reading achievement of children whose vocabulary and experience is somewhat different than that of the population used to norm the test.

Yet when underprivileged children do poorly on such tests, our response is to starve all areas of the curriculum except the teaching of reading skills in the interest of raising test scores! We end up denying them the content of education—the world that is worth thinking and reading about. What less advantaged students require to handle complex ideas in history, science, or literature is a richer diet of history, science, and literature in a context in which complex ideas are encouraged. In the name of reading, however, we have mostly driven such subjects underground and dealt with what's left over in simplistic, sequenced formulas. Our students need programs that are concerned with the process and quality of their thinking, yet we label these luxuries or frills.

Children have to read *about* something—one of these frills. In fact, if they don't know about anything, if they don't care deeply about anything, if they don't desire to think anything through, and if they see no connection between knowing, caring, thinking, and *reading*, then what in the world can they ever do with all those discrete little reading skills?

These four myths, which have become so deeply embedded in our thinking about reading, have had a drastic effect on the effort to improve reading. The guidelines accompanying state and federal monies (which are now tied to the teaching of discrete reading skills) are the outcome of such myths as are the current spate of commercial reading programs.

As long as anxious or ignorant boards of education believe in such myths, it is likely that those with disadvantages when they enter school will be classified as less educable, treated accordingly, and become even more so. Instead of trying to confound such predictions, we are thus pushed into confirming them.

Reading is a vital source of power and pleasure, both personal and social. Until we believe this is true for all children, we will continue to produce more and more intellectually arid reading schemes with their frantic promises of narrowly defined short-term success. While school people thus try to "look good" in the game of statistics, we are forgetting what it is that *children* need to look good in their future lives. □

Poor Readers—II

By JOYCE HOOD
Director, Children's Reading Clinic, The University of Iowa, Iowa City.

Just as children differ in height and weight and hair color, so they do in reading ability and in the styles of reading they develop. Even by the end of first grade, the normal range of differences is wider than most people suppose. A few children in a typical first grade classroom cannot name all the letters of the alphabet and cannot read more than a dozen words. There will probably be a few others who can read the same books that the average fourth grader can. Still others will be between these extremes. Only a handful will have reading ability "on grade level" according to achievement test scores.

By the end of sixth grade, the differences in reading abilities will grow even wider. Very likely there will be a few children whose reading level is about like that of the average second grader, who can read second grade material at a rate of around 80 words per minute. At the opposite extreme will be children who can read light fiction that is intended for juniors in high school and who can even read some high school textbooks. These children's reading rates for high school material can be as high as 300 or 400 words per minute. Sixth graders in one large city school system were found to range across nearly nine grade levels; in a nearby suburb, the range was somewhat less—seven levels.

What causes this great range? In order to learn to read, children must first be able to communicate with others in spoken language and must possess the skills that will help them apply their oral-aural communication abilities to the world of print. Thus they must be aware of the sounds of spoken language as they are related to the shapes of printed language and the conventional order in which they are related.

Any child is likely to be relatively strong in some areas and weak in others, and so each has his or her own unique combination of auditory, visual, sequential, and language abilities. Each combination of skills produces a different rate of learning and leads to a different level of reading power. It is unrealistic, therefore, to expect a school to develop the same style of reading among all its pupils.

The most important goals of reading instruction are (a) developing each child's power in reading to its maximum level, (b) helping each child to understand and accept his or her own style of reading and to use it to best advantage, and (c) encouraging all children to value other individuals by their participation in society rather than by their reading style or power.

This means, of course, that the school must set the example by providing a variety of instruction suited to children's learning styles and by valuing each child as a person, regardless of his or her level of reading power.

Some children experience difficulty in learning to read because of a physiological problem such as impaired vision or hearing. Many in the field of reading would say such children have a reading disability; I would prefer to describe them as having a physiological disability which interferes with their learning to read.

Emotional difficulties may also hamper a child's learning to read. These are not easy to separate from reading disabilities, however, since emotional problems often are the result of the reading problem rather than its cause.

If children have experienced emotional difficulties in early childhood long before they had any contact with academic learning, it might be assumed that the emotional difficulty interfered with their learning to read. In that case, again I would say that these children do not have a reading disability; they have an emotional difficulty interfering with reading.

A third possible area of interference in children's learning to read has its source in their previous experiences. The problem develops

when the experiences children have in their preschool years and the language used to communicate within the family are quite different from the experiences they are expected to read about in school and the language used in the books they are expected to read. Children like this, who are culturally different, may have difficulty learning to read if instruction is not adjusted to their environment. But I would not call this a reading disability.

Children with a reading disability are those whose reading power is less than their general learning power, despite the fact that they have no physiological or emotional problem and their home environment matches their instruction. These youngsters probably do not like to read and may never finish reading assignments. Their basic symptom is that they have extreme difficulty in learning to recognize printed words—a problem which has no identifiable cause.

The basic symptom of reading disability is an extreme difficulty with word recognition, but children with this problem may have a number of related symptoms, such as the following:

1. These children have difficulty learning the difference between letters and words that can be reversed, such as *b* and *d*, *p* and *q*, *was* and *saw*, and *on* and *no*. Typically, most children in kindergarten and many first graders have this difficulty, but it should disappear by the time they reach third grade.

2. They often have difficulty learning which is the left hand and which is the right.

3. These youngsters may have poor handwriting or may be slow in developing drawing and writing skills. When copying a geometric form or drawing the figure of a boy or a girl, their lines may waver or the corners may not meet or some important details of the form or figure may be missing.

4. Spelling may be difficult for these children. They may omit letters and syllables or scramble them or start spelling one word and finishing another. If they have been taught phonics, they will probably spell words as they sound (such as *wate* for *weight*). Otherwise they will probably just write a series of unrelated letters (*crui* for *chair*) or use a favorite sequence over and over (*yoly*).

5. The words which give these youngsters the most trouble in reading and in spelling are the "easy" ones. For example, they often confuse or forget *there*, *where*, and *when*; *even*, *ever*, *every*, and *very*; and *then* and *when*.

6. Time relationships or spatial relationships cause problems for them. They may not know the months of the year, the days of the week, the seasons, or even their birthdate. They often have difficulty understanding such pairs of words as *before* and *after* or *above* and *below*.

7. Sometimes, these children may find it hard to pay attention for more than a short period of time. Any child gets restless when expected to work at something that is too difficult, and this sometimes may be why those youngsters are so inattentive and distractible.

8. These children may have trouble remembering things. They may reverse the sequence of digits in a telephone number or they may scramble the sounds within words, saying *soffit* instead of *faucet*, for example. They may not be able to remember two or three things that they have been told to do long enough to do them all and may have to have the instructions repeated.

In recent years, some people have used labels such as *dyslexia* or *minimal brain dysfunction* (MBD) to describe severe reading difficulty accompanied by some or all of the above symptoms. These symptoms are sometimes found in adults who have lost their ability to read because of a severe head injury or a stroke. This has made it tempting to assume that a child's symptoms were also caused by a brain injury or a brain dysfunction.

In *Annals, New York Academy of Sciences* 1973, Arthur L. Benton, a psychologist who also specializes in neurobiology, has pointed out that "cerebral lesions in children must either be quite extensive or have specific disorganizing functional properties in order to produce important behavioral abnormalities. It follows, I think, that if the behavioral deviations defining MBD are to be ascribed to brain damage or dysfunction, then that damage or dysfunction can hardly be 'minimal' in character."

In view of what Benton has said, it might be useful to use the term *dyslexia* (and not MBD) to refer to severe reading difficulties where a diagnosable brain damage or dysfunction actually exists and to use the term *reading disability* to refer to the severe reading difficulties that have no identifiable cause. The instructional

procedures will be the same regardless of whether or not the diagnosis of brain damage or brain dysfunction is made. However, as I see it, children who do have a diagnosable brain dysfunction do not have reading disability. Instead they have a brain dysfunction which is interfering with their learning to read.

Some have suggested that reading difficulties could be lessened if one could determine which children would learn by the sight-word approach, using their visual skills, and which by the phonics approach, using their auditory skills.

On the surface, this idea seems to have exciting possibilities. However, learning to read requires recognizing both the sounds in spoken words and the shapes in printed words and relating the sounds to the shapes.

Solving children's reading problems cannot be done simply by choosing the type of reading instruction that concentrates on their visual or auditory strength, because reading requires the combination of visual and auditory skills. Therefore, some have suggested that the best thing to do is to remedy the problem reader's weakness. Many clever and interesting programs have been developed to train a child's skills in visual perception. These programs provide practice in such skills as finding shapes within larger designs, copying shapes, drawing lines, and discriminating reversed shapes.

Children learn to recognize and draw shapes in these programs, but afterward they do not become better readers. The reason: Letters and words are also shapes, and children who have a visual perceptual disability need extra help with learning *every* new shape, including *every* new word. The visual perceptual difficulty is not a condition to be cured, then, but rather a condition which will require attention all through the years that children are learning to read.

The general conclusion of those who have studied dyslexia and reading disability and who have tried to teach dyslexic and disabled readers is that no simple cure exists. Children have difficulty learning to read because they lack one or more of the basic skills that are necessary in learning to read: discriminating speech sounds, identifying and naming the shapes called letters and words, organizing letters and sounds in the proper order, and paying attention to a series of printed words and responding quickly with a series of spoken words.

Problem readers may need a year just to learn the names and sounds of the letters of the alphabet and to learn to read a dozen words. They may need four or five more years to learn the basic vocabulary that allows them to read as well as the average second grader. During junior and senior high school, they may still need instruction in the fundamental skills of reading the telephone directory, instruction manuals, catalogs, and newspapers. As adults, they will be able to read when they must, but problem readers are not likely to read material of any kind when they can avoid doing so.

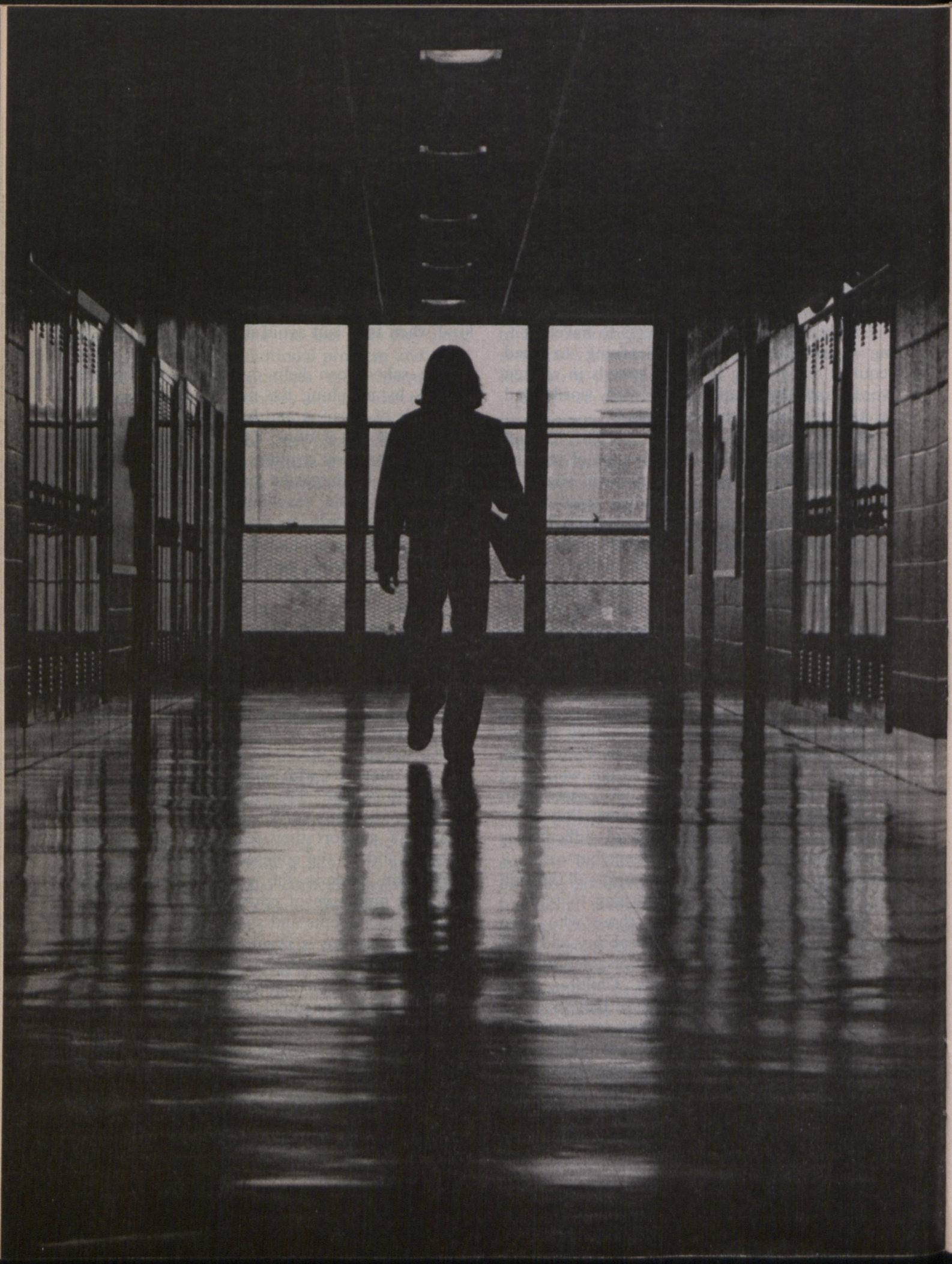
The school can help dyslexic and disabled readers by matching the rate of instruction to their rate of learning and by believing that they *can* learn if this is done. The adjustment in the rate of instruction includes providing continuation of the kindergarten program through first and second grade, teaching the typical second grade skills as late as sixth grade, using specialized techniques for teaching phonic and structural analysis, and continuing to teach reading skills through junior and senior high.

Parents can help by not demanding too much of these children or the school. Mothers and fathers can emphasize their children's strong areas so that these boys and girls can feel worthwhile in spite of their reading disability. Parents can also ask the teacher *not* to try to teach too much at once.

Can youngsters with severe reading problems ever go to college? The answer to this question depends on their verbal intelligence, on the quality of support they receive at school and at home and on the college they choose.

Problem readers who go to college should choose a minimum of courses that have heavy reading assignments and space them so that not too much reading is required at any one time. They should recognize that they will need three to four times as much time as their classmates to get through assignments. Because success in college will require an extra investment of time and effort, these individuals should carefully weigh the decision to go to college. □

Dr. Hood spoke at greater length on this topic at the Pediatric Postgraduate Program sponsored by the Department of Pediatrics, University of Iowa Hospitals and Clinics.



Youth Who Have Been Incarcerated

Young People in Trouble

By **CLAIRE GREENE**
Curriculum Coordinator, Saddle Brook (New Jersey) Public Schools.

Young people frequently fare badly when they get into trouble with the law. Teachers can do much to help these youngsters—as volunteers in correctional institutions and as child advocates, supporting those agencies seeking improvements in treating juvenile delinquents.

In most states, the statutes defining juvenile delinquency are so broad that almost any child could be charged with it. Juveniles may be charged with delinquency for any act for which an adult could be arrested. The adult may receive a fine or a determinate sentence; a juvenile, an indeterminate sentence (until "corrected"). Children are not accorded rights that adults take for granted—bail, trial by jury, determinate sentences. Juveniles can also be charged with delinquency for acts which are not crimes for adults, for example, "incorrigibility" or "growing up in idleness."

The philosophy of the juvenile court judge in combination with the local political climate will determine whether the court will be a helping, rehabilitative agency or a punitive, vindictive one. The judge may or may not have the benefit of an adequate probation department and may or may not elect to use its services.

Charged with juvenile delinquency and awaiting court disposition, youths under 18 or 16 (established age varies from state to state) may be placed in holding (detention) facilities, which, in reality, are jails for children. Only a small fraction of the children who are brought to juvenile court actually need detention, but many courts detain far more of them than is necessary in the opinion of many experts.

A 1966 survey found that 93 percent of the country's juvenile court jurisdictions lacked appropriate separate detention facilities for children, who were therefore placed in local police lockups or in county jails. More and more, laws are being changed to require separate facilities for juveniles. In sparsely populated areas, regional detention facilities to serve more than one jurisdiction are being considered, but few have been developed. Too often, children are placed in jails for adults. The rationale for such action is many-faceted, but the most common is that the detention home and staff are not geared to handling the more aggressive adolescents who need secure detention.

In those jurisdictions that have laws permitting the use of adult jails for detaining youths, the law usually restricts the mingling of adult criminals with detained children. This, however, does not correct the wrong of putting children in jail. What usually happens is that children are placed in some remote section of the jail, away from adults. They are denied adequate supervision, recreation, or necessary programs, which results in assaults of children on children, suicide attempts—some successful—and, at the very best, complete boredom.

Upon hearing a case, a judge may ask for more information. The child is then remanded until probation gathers sufficient information or until a diagnostic evaluation has been made. Although the latter may take only three to five hours in a psychologist's office, it is not unusual for a youngster to be detained for 30 to 120 days. At the presentation of the probation or diagnostic evaluation, the judge makes final disposition.

Children may be committed to a state correctional facility or program or sent home (with or without being placed under restrictions). If they are unable to return home because of destructive family relationships or lack of needed supervision, they may be returned to the detention center to await placement in a residential school

or foster home. The older the children, the more difficult the placement and the longer the wait.

Consequently, the waiting period for one child may be overnight; for another, one year. The youngster who has committed no criminal act is housed with the violent; the first offender, with the repeater; the seven-year-old, with the 17-year-old. One citizens' committee found that 331 children *under age six* had been placed in a county detention home during one year.

The detention facility in my county used to routinely isolate children on admittance for 24 hours, regardless of age. Each child was assigned a cell, with a steel door with a peephole and one small window. While the child awaited court disposition or transfer, many things were forbidden—wall decorations, pencils, mirrors, talking to the opposite sex, going to the bathroom except at specified times, etc.

After adjudication, 75 percent of these children would go home. One 18-year-old said, "We are treated like dirt. How can this help us?"

Instead of solving the problem of juvenile crime, all too often the system seems to compound it. According to an article by Senator Birch Bayh in the Autumn 1971 issue of *American Scholar*, the recidivism rate for juveniles is nearly 75 percent, which is even higher than the rate for adult criminals.

Educators cannot sit back while conditions such as these exist. Too much evidence proves that children who leave our schools to enter detention centers return to us again more disturbed and more aggressive.

Educators must learn the present status of justice for dependent, acting-out youngsters in their area. If their community has a good system for dealing with juvenile offenders, they must work to sustain it. If not, they must work for law revision. (In many states, juvenile delinquency laws have not been revised for 50 years.) Educators must learn of model delinquency-preventing techniques. Creative and imaginative programs do exist. Educators must support programs which focus on assisting the troubled family instead of just the troubled child.

Teachers can act as volunteers in detention centers and in institutions for delinquents which need them. They can visit and support their students who are in trouble, not to condone bad behavior but to show concern and a belief that these students still count and that they can change. What a different attitude youngsters would have on reentering the school community, knowing that someone from school had accompanied them through difficult times!

Teachers can work with their education associations on this issue. Working with a citizens' committee, my county association, the Bergen County Education Association, demanded change in our detention center. We opened its doors, insisted that volunteers be allowed to serve there, demanded that the center provide a school and recreation and activity programs. We asked for and received the vigorous support of religious, service, and professional organizations in our county.

Delinquent children have no voice. No individuals, organizations, or unions speak out on their behalf. But teachers can help. □

Detention facilities, in reality, are jails for children.

The Return to School

By NELSON HENRY

Assistant Professor of Psychology, Livingston College, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey, and author, When Mother Is a Prefix: New Directions in Youth Correction, *Behavioral Publications, 1972. Mr. Henry has been a junior high school general science teacher as well as a counselor of disturbed and delinquent youth.*

Every year across the nation hundreds of high schools experience a return of the natives—boys and girls who have lived the immediately preceding months in the wilderness of youth "correction" facilities. Typically, returnees come from a pool of truant, acting-out, nonachieving students in the school population. Their experience in the correctional home has not been edifying. Often, they have had their cynical view of authority and "the system" confirmed by what happened to them there.

When such youngsters, usually on probation, return to school, it is not easy to win them over to a different, legitimate style of making it. Their return frequently causes an upsurge in violence, which, most of the time, is the predictable outcome of the system's failure to address itself to the felt needs of the acting-out students, some—but not all of whom—are detention-home

returnees. (Some studies, in fact, suggest that the *once* institutionalized boy is not more likely to be a source of some forms of delinquency than other pupils who have similar backgrounds but who have not had the chastening experience of a trip to the cave.)

Students on probation are usually young men or women who have had poor guidance most of their lives. It is probably safe to assume that the guidance they received in the correctional home was no better than that they received before.

For reasons that escape me, most school guidance counselors and teachers think that counseling consists of giving youngsters "good advice," when the last thing most teenagers want to hear is advice. Advice is only useful if youngsters are listening and receptive. But between ages 12 and 17, most of us develop an internal radar that picks up and repels UFO's (unsolicited free opinions). Through hundreds of hours of counseling teenagers in correctional facilities and in the public junior high school where I taught, I have become convinced of the futility of this approach.

The reason is simple: Teachers and delinquents live in different perceptual worlds. The former cannot feel the delinquents' pain or fear or boredom or frustration. The message that youngsters just need to try harder and to bear up is simply unconvincing. Their inner reply is that they have seen the future, and it (the future) doesn't work.

Failing to inspire the probationers to knuckle down to work, many guidance counselors and classroom teachers (understandably) fall back on controlling them, that is, on getting them to follow school routine with as little hassle as possible. The question of how to help youngsters prepare themselves for the harsher world outside the school is, like most of our country's social problems, left to the vagaries of chance. This is no one's fault really. The truth is that in the past our public schools were simply not geared or intended to help nonacademic pupils. Efforts made during the 60's to institute special schools and programs have created an awareness of vocational education and, hopefully, this decade will give a better break to students who are not headed for college.

The process I have found most helpful to these pupils begins with helping them to perceive the

The last thing returnees need is special treatment which sets them apart.

counselor or teacher as *their* advocate rather than as some vague bureaucrat out there interested only in controlling them. This process is admittedly difficult for some teachers, counselors, and administrators to effect, particularly if race or class differences increase the perceptual remoteness I spoke of earlier.

But even assuming that students returning from correctional facilities are determined to adopt prosocial behavior, their return is fraught with potentially bad consequences, for now they not only have to catch up academically with classwork but also to deal with some embarrassing personal problems. One of them is the attitude peers may take toward someone with a "record." (However, in most states, youngsters under 16 who commit a misdemeanor do not get a record.)

Even though school officials and the police department scrupulously keep the identities of minors who have been arrested out of the newspapers, in every instance that I know of, most of the school population knew exactly who had been arrested or released as soon as—and often before—the school authorities knew. The same kind of notoriety attends the return to school of a girl who has had a baby and, to a lesser extent, a girl who has had an abortion. In any case, the responsibility for easing the return of prodigal sons and daughters often devolves on the teaching staff.

We are all aware of the fact that children can be tactless and even unfeeling in dealing with their peers who have been jailed. This tactlessness may take the relatively benign form of teasing or "sounding on" the returnee. Much of it may be done in fun, but the victims, while putting up a brave or nonchalant front, often feel hurt and embittered by the thoughtless jibes. In not a few instances, the hazing may cause the youngsters to drop out of school entirely. This adds to the urgency of correct and timely intervention by school counselors and teachers.

As with most other situations, an ounce of

prevention is worth a pound of cure. Therefore, it would pay huge dividends, I think, for the returning student and a guidance counselor or interested teacher to hold a number of private orientation sessions *immediately* upon the student's reenrollment. These sessions could provide an opportunity to welcome the youngster back, to express the school's interest in him or her as an individual, and to offer help to the student with problems that may be encountered in readjustment to school life. Teenagers are exquisitely sensitive, so whoever conducts these initial interviews should convey genuine concern and acceptance.

The best way I know to begin such a meeting is to extend a friendly greeting and to tell the student the school is aware of past trouble with the authorities, rather than pretending ignorance of it. Feigned naivete will only mark the teacher or counselor as a phony in the returnee's book. The adult's attitude should be one of optimism and enthusiasm, though not out of line with the seriousness of what the sessions are about.

Also, during this first part of the opening session, the teacher or counselor should ask about the student's feelings about returning as well as about fears, hopes, and plans for the future. It could be that the teacher's ear will be the first sympathetic one for a while.

The second goal in this first session is to help the returnee anticipate possible rejection by other students. To quote another cliché, to be forewarned is to be forearmed. The teacher or counselor therefore advises the pupil that there may be some ribbing from the others. (Of course, this may not happen at all. Indeed, there are schools where the returning native becomes a kind of hero.)

At this point, the teacher and student may do a bit of role playing with the teacher as the student provocateur, tossing barbed statements at the other. Or the teacher can direct a number of "What-would-you-do-if" or "How-would-you-feel-if" questions at the young person, helping with development of some confidence in the ability to survive expected hassles.

An important bit of information to pass along is that hazers are encouraged to keep on when their victims show visible discomfort or anger. Keeping cool under relentless teasing may be a bit much to ask of a teenager whose self-control is none too firm in the first place, but there should be assurance that ignoring the kooks or not becoming visibily riled will help take some of the fun out of the taunting behavior.

The third purpose of these sessions is to give the pupil and the school a hedge against the returnee's wanting to drop out if the going gets rough early on. When returnees know that someone is interested in their problems, they may inform the teacher of uncertainty about staying in school.

As stated above, the heckling may not occur. If it does, the students guilty of it should be censured. This is a somewhat trickier problem than *just* hauling them in; that is to say, the school must not create the impression that the returning student is a squealer. The student has enough problems without that! I used to approach hecklers in this fashion: "Some students heard you heckling so-and-so, it made *them* mad, and it also upsets me to know . . ." or "I was going down the hall and heard you teasing so-and-so, and while he doesn't seem to mind (he's kind of a strong guy), I think you should have more sensitivity about his feelings. . . ."

Teachers with a returning student in class should treat that student the same as they treat others. The last thing returnees need is special treatment which sets them apart.

In the event returning students are interested in extracurricular activities, teachers should encourage them to participate. However, in some states, a probationary period follows any incarceration, and after-school activities may be proscribed. Teachers should educate themselves about any conditions of the probation before they give advice about extracurricular involvements—or part-time jobs.

The question of a part-time job can be a tough one to answer, for the employability of teenagers, particularly black ones, is low. But if no probationary conditions restrict these students from working, helping them to find jobs can be the best rehabilitative boost of all.

Many factors go into making a return to schools a successful one, and no single article can anticipate all possible pitfalls that returning students may encounter. What these young people need most of all is a sincere friend, someone who can awaken their strengths and mobilize them for the long months ahead. □

Do Black Poets Write Black Poems?

By MELVIN G. WILLIAMS
Associate Professor of English, American International College, Springfield, Massachusetts.

Present the average literature class with the sonnet below, and they will be able to see its themes as applicable to any group that is threatened and has decided to stand up and fight against heavy odds. But present it to a class in black literature, and the response will usually be different. The "kinsmen" automatically become black brothers, and the "foe" are racist whites.

Since most readers are tempted to interpret a poem in terms of their awareness of information outside the text rather than just to read what the poem itself says, students who arrive on the first day at a class in black literature (or even a unit on black writers) are immediately at a disadvantage. Everything they read will already have been placed inside a figurative box—a box labeled "black."

A useful way to begin such a class, then, is to provide the students with several short poems which they must try to identify as being the work of either a black or a white writer. Their decision cannot be based on the fact that the class is called "black literature" and thus that they can have, as it were, preprogrammed responses, but instead it must come from their reading of several poems without authors, at least one of whom they know will not be black.

If We Must Die

If we must die—let it not be like hogs
Hunted and penned in an inglorious spot,
While round us bark the mad and hungry dogs,
Making their mock at our accursed lot.
If we must die—oh, let us nobly die,
So that our precious blood may not be shed
In vain; then even the monsters we defy
Shall be constrained to honor us though dead!
Oh, Kinsmen! We must meet the common foe;
Though far outnumbered, let us show us brave,
And for their thousand blows deal one deathblow!
What though before us lies the open grave?
Like men we'll face the murderous, cowardly pack,
Pressed to the wall, dying, but fighting back!

Assigning this sonnet invites the class to be open with their ideas from the very start. It also provides an opportunity for a teacher to find out what preconceptions his students have. Do they, for instance, expect that black poetry should be full of protest? On this basis, "If We Must Die" would qualify easily. Yet since Blacks do not have a corner on the world market of protest, there will have to be further evidence if the poem is to be racially limited. Someone might ask, Do Blacks write poems as formal as a sonnet, an intricate pattern with European origins? Many students doubt that they do and thus quickly dismiss even the possibility that this one could be by a black writer.

Later on, a teacher will want to tell students about the facile way in which Countee Cullen, for instance, was able to handle some of the most difficult of traditional forms, but at this point it will be better for the students to explore their own assumptions. Many of these will, of course, be based far more on racial stereotypes than on reading experience.

When the discussion seems about at a stalemate (for, in fact, the text does not present evidence for any racial distinction), a teacher may want to supply a bit of outside information. It is reported that the poem was recited by Winston Churchill in a speech during World War II.

Explaining this, the teacher can ask a class if it is reasonable to suppose that the poem might be the work of a British author? Is the "foe" Hitler? Are the "mad and hungry dogs" the German army? Is "the wall" against which the people are being pushed—"dying, but fighting back"—the Atlantic Ocean?

Some will be convinced of the reasonableness of this, and many who are unconvinced will argue anyway that poems can mean almost whatever a reader wants them to mean. Only when the teacher reveals that the sonnet was written by Claude McKay, the Jamaican who came to the United States during the Harlem Renaissance, will they know for certain that the author is black, and then they may dismiss the foe-equals-Hitler equation as nonsense.

Yet is it really nonsense at all? Isn't the metaphoric language, a teacher should ask, just as appropriate to a European land war as

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This is the first in a series of articles presenting instructional techniques in various disciplines that seem likely to motivate students.

to an American racial one? Of course it is. And this is just the point that one will want to make. An effective poet can control a poem so that it *must* mean certain things, yet at the same time *may* mean other things as well.

In this poem, McKay has avoided anything that would restrict the struggle to only one race or one war. It is human dignity that is at stake here, nothing less. To be sure, various individuals can interpret such figurative language according to their own experience, but until they recognize that a poem is a strictly limited use of language that cannot mean just anything they might like it to, they cannot become effective readers. In this case, although the *poet* is black, the *poem* is not.

A second poem one might use is titled "No Images," a selection that for the purposes of this exercise can most effectively be presented with one small change from the original version. It is quoted here with the deletion of a single word which students should not know is missing until well into their discussion.

No Images

She does not know
Her beauty,
She thinks her body
Has no glory.

If she could dance
Naked,
Under palm trees
And see her image in the river
She would know.

But there are no palm trees
On the street,
And dishwater gives back no images.

Especially if this assignment follows their discussion of McKay's sonnet, most students will hedge on this poem right from the start. As printed here, nothing tells readers that its situation is black rather than white, unless they somehow expect that a woman with her hands in dishwater is more likely to be black than white.

For some, of course, this may be a quite normal assumption, though most will maintain only that the situation is unexpected for any poem. Right away, however, some feminist in the group will probably point out that the poem concerns any woman whose social role does not allow her to visualize her own inner beauty. The sensuous quality of standing naked before the river is part of her being feminine, she may say, thus making it appropriate to any woman at all. Notice further that the subject of the poem is identified only as "she."

The poem is written in free verse with a notable economy of words. Significantly, it is her "beauty," not mere prettiness, that the woman does not see, and the writer offers no physical description of her at all. The contrast of the palm trees and river water to the street and the dishwater is obvious, and the writer does not elaborate on it. Is the poet black or white? There is no way to tell.

Only at this point should a teacher supply the deleted word. In line three, the poet originally had described the woman as having a "brown" body: "She thinks her brown body/Has no glory." Now, does that addition automatically make the writer black? Not necessarily, for at least two reasons. First, the brown body may only be tanned by the sun. And, second, even if the woman herself is dark-skinned, there is nothing to prove that the writer has to be.

Whichever position a class takes, however, the next question to ask them is why the writer does not use the word *black* instead of *brown*. After all, who ever heard anyone declare that "brown is beautiful"? Isn't the popular slogan "black is beautiful"?

A class may respond that *brown* is more delicate in sound and more precise in description than *black* and thus perhaps is more feminine in connotation. Moreover, this does not appear to be a protest poem growing out of the contemporary black experience. Instead it calls attention to a woman whose beauty and glory have been hidden even from her. That the author is black seems probable, however, since there appears to be a reflection of racial pride in the poem. But as in the case with the sonnet by McKay, the situation is also broadly human.

To tell a class finally that the author is the black poet, Waring Cuney, should hardly be necessary at this point, for they ought to have found the work itself of far more concern to them than the name or race of its creator.

These two are not the only poems that could be useful in such an exercise, of course. One might use a dialect poem by Paul Laurence Dunbar ("The Party"), a feminine poem by Gwendolyn Brooks ("The Mother"), or a dream poem by Langston Hughes ("Harlem"). One could select an example from a black writer which appears to have no racial limitations at all or choose others which shout their blackness in theme or subject or allusion or language or form. And finally one should also include the work of one or more white poets to make the black-or-white test a truly fair one.

And then what is the result of an exercise like this? First of all, it will have required the students to read the poems themselves and to justify their initial hunches from the words in front of them rather than from the headnotes printed in their books. Second, it will have helped them to explore their expectations about the nature of black literature and the black experience in America. And third, it will have gotten them talking and persuading one another and thus will have helped to mold them into a single class instead of a collection of individuals. □

Go, Man, Go!

By STEVE BRODY
English Teacher, Eastchester (New York) Senior High School.

Marvin had a radio set;
It never was on low;
And everywhere that Marvin went
The set was sure to go.

Marvin Rothman was a child of the sixties. He had been nurtured on the Beatles, the Rolling Stones, and all the other hip-swinging, guitar-flailing, ear-shattering purveyors of rock. He attended all the rock festivals and managed to make the scene whenever a high-powered group rolled into the area.

Marvin ranged through the corridors of the high school carrying a four-band shortwave radio that easily could have pulled music from the spheres. The size of a suitcase, the radio was constantly blaring forth a cacophonous medley of rock music.

The radio was as much a part of Marvin as the hair on his head. In the cafeteria, he would set it strategically on the table in front of him, practically in the dish with his hot dogs and beans. While waiting for the bus, he would sit on the curb, rolling his eyes and snapping his fingers in time to the music.

As long as I wasn't directly involved with Marvin, I considered him a mere passing phenomenon—a lad who, as a product of our youth culture, required discordant noise as a sedative. Unfortunately, in his senior year, Marvin was assigned to my English IV eighth period class, and that is where our disaffection began.

It was the first day of school, and I was delivering a routine lecture on the virtues of academic effort, regular attendance, and punctuality. I was laying stress on the latter virtue when Marvin walked in, some 15 minutes late, hauling his radio with him. He took a seat in the rear and immediately snapped it on. The room soon tingled with the groovy sound of James Brown singing "Popcorn."

"Go, Man, go!" shouted Marvin, clapping his hands and ducking his head as if to simulate the great man himself.

In a few moments the whole room was jumping to the weird beat of James Brown. I realized it would be hopeless to compete with him. I simply didn't have the moves.

"Turn off that radio," I demanded.

Marvin cupped his ears, "You addressing me, Man?"

"Turn . . . off . . . that . . . radio!"

Marvin sensed that I meant business. He acknowledged my authority by turning down the volume.

"Off," I insisted. "Completely off."

He appeared stung. "You mean you don't allow no radios in this class?"

"I mean just that. I don't allow no . . . I don't allow radios in this class or in any of my classes. For the last time, turn it off."

Marvin snapped the switch, and the room was blissfully silent. But the rock addict wasn't about to be squelched so easily. He had connected the earplug and was now in a state of private reception, virtually incommunicado as far as the rest of the class was concerned. I walked over to his desk and removed the plug from his ear.

"This is room 209," I began. "You have presumably been placed in my custody five periods a week, 40 weeks a year, for the prime purpose of improving your skills in English. You are to appear here the eighth period of each day, accompanied only by educational accoutrements, such as books, paper, and pencils. Anything of a foreign nature, such as a radio, is strictly forbidden. If you show up once more with this noisebox, I'll confiscate it for the rest of the year. Do you receive me?"

"I receive you," grumbled Marvin.

But Marvin wasn't to be brushed aside so readily. He began wearing a safari jacket with outsize pockets, in one of which was stashed a small transistor radio. He kept the volume low, and I probably would never have discovered the ruse if he hadn't failed to curb his emotions one day, rising to his feet and shouting, "Go, Man, go!"

I strode to his desk angrily. "In spite of all my warnings, you persist in bringing that music into my classroom."

Marvin seemed hurt. "This ain't music, Man. This is the World's Serious. The Mets just tied the game."

"I don't care *what* you're tuned in to. I will not permit radios in this . . . what inning is it?"

"Last of the ninth. Bud Harrelson's on second with the winning run. Cleon Jones at bat."

"Turn up the volume," I ordered.

At that instant, Jones cracked a line drive to left. Harrelson took off and rounded third.

"Go, Man, go!" I screamed.

I suddenly realized that Marvin—the entire class, for that matter—was staring at me. I regained my composure and walked back to my desk. "I repeat, Ladies and Gentlemen, there are to be no radios in English IV. This rule will go into effect as soon as the Series is over."

"Go, Man, go!" yelled Marvin. □

"You really think you ought to write a letter to my teacher about my grammar and spelling? She'll realize where all my trouble stems from!"

TV and Radio Teaching Tools

By JACK B. SPATAFORA
Director, New Trier Township Television, Winnetka, Illinois.

We've all heard the statistics! By the time Johnny enters elementary school, he's spent more time watching TV than he has playing with his father. By the time he graduates from high school, he's been in the classroom about 12,000 hours and in front of the TV set about 20,000 hours.

Many question the amount of television viewing by people in our society and the quality of the programming. Since, however, neither rage nor disdain will exorcise the electronic media, educators need to take a closer look at radio and TV to see if their power can be bridled for effective use within the learning environment of the school.

This writer speaks with some built-in prejudices. The 30 K-12 schools in New Trier on the North Shore of Chicago are hooked into a four-channel ETV network, which broadcasts over 100 hours of acquired and locally produced programming every week. My prejudice grows out of the success of the program in New Trier. Television works with kids!

What makes it work? How can schools not already into TV put it and radio to work for them? Perhaps we can answer these questions by approaching them from three different angles: the role of the electronic media, the uses of educational programming, and the uses for commercial programming.

First, let's consider its role. Today's schools are committed to a variety of learning strategies—strategies such as the open classroom, individualized learning, multi-age grouping, and affective education. While different, each strategy shares a common concern for breaking up old teaching patterns and reaching out to create new learning experiences. That is where the electronic media enter, for what richer world of experience can teachers bring into the physical confines of their classrooms than television and radio?

Is it a mountain community that students want to study? Or the ruins of the ancient Aztecs? Or the distant stars? Or Margaret Mead's views on families of the future? Or Truman Capote on the art of the novel? Whatever today's voracious new educational appetites require, the electronic media can help feed on demand.

TV or radio in the classroom literally brings the world to that room! It electronically links learners to their planet and to their fellowmen. It substitutes traveling to a place or person by bringing that place or person to the student. In this way, it can give any part of the curriculum new excitement, added dimension, and greater depth than either teacher or textbook alone can possibly do.

Some of us may contest that last statement. It's only natural to be somewhat defensive about our role versus the role of this intruder upon the learning scene. But with today's electronically oriented learners, we are doomed to lose in any hasty attack or ridicule of TV and radio.

So rather than fight them, why not funnel some of the best of their programs into the schools? For such funneling, teachers now have some provocative new tools, tools like the audio cassette and the video cassette with which teachers can make electronic copies of a program for individualized playback, replete with start, stop, and instant replay features. (The problem with copyright is of course a bone in the throat of ambitious educators, and that issue is central to the heavily lobbied copyright bill now wending its slow course through Congress. The final decision could affect the course of electronic education for the rest of the century and demands the profession's active attention.)

Having touched briefly on the role these media might play in the learning process, let's consider programming. Educators are long past being dazzled by the shiny steel and chrome of educational technology. What they want—and have a right to demand—is quality programs that will immerse kids in experiences that really count. And really contribute.

Let's start with the so-called educational programming offered by the local public broadcasting stations. Here are a few samples:

- *Sesame Street* and *The Electric Company* (preschool through third grade). These blockbusters have been on the air for several years, and despite their critics, they have earned almost universal acclaim in their effort to educate while they delight. As a result of the educational value of these two shows, no one can ever again argue

that "television is only a toy" without fear of being kicked in the shins by a resolute little fan.

• *Mister Rogers' Neighborhood* (preschool). This show has a low-key approach to the other side of learning—the side that doesn't usually get attention in the more formal structure of the school. *Mister Rogers* probes such concepts as why children are sometimes afraid of the dark or get mad at their parents or fight with their little sisters. Call it socialization, human development, or whatever educational jargon suits you, the effect is to humanize the viewer. Inasmuch as humanization is what education is really all about, *Mister Rogers* surely deserves a place in the curriculum.

• *Zoom* (preteens). This is the only program on television scripted and performed exclusively by kids for kids. The ideas on the show, which come from youngsters who write in, are carried out with zest by an alternating cast of preteens. Skits, riddles, jokes, rap sessions, brain-bending vignettes — *Zoom* tries them all! With what effect? Again, a fuller development of the human side of its young viewers—their capacity to laugh, reflect, communicate, relate, grow. That's heady stuff, and what teachers would discourage such inputs for their pupils?

• *Washington Week in Review* (sixth grade through adult). Another series on many ETV stations is this incisive weekly probe into the issues that make current news. Several veteran correspondents act as regular panelists and are joined by special guests. Watergate, equal rights for women, the Middle East, abortion — this program tackles them all. And in depth!

• *Masterpiece Theatre* (high school through adult). This superlative series of dramatizations is produced in Great Britain and has included such award-winning series as *Elizabeth R, Henry VIII, The Forsyte Saga, Last of the Mohicans*, and *Upstairs, Downstairs*. Provocative encounters with great moments in history, great pieces of literature, and great theatrical productions.

Zoom *is performed exclusively for kids and by kids.*

• *Nova* (fourth grade through adult). This science series treats a rich variety of subjects, including the language of dolphins, rediscovering lost Indian tribes of the Amazon, the power and patterns of weather. It takes on solid academic subjects in a style that is fresh, stimulating, and fun.

Of course, other television series are available on public broadcasting. Check local stations and local listings. (Many programs produced by public television stations throughout the country—although not, for the most part, the programs discussed here — are available on videotape at a nominal rental fee. Write for a free catalog to Public Television Library, 512 E. 17th St., Bloomington, IN 47401.)

Find the treasure-house of experiences that lurks just behind that television screen. Teachers' encouragement can unlock it for students. Instead of bewailing the fact that so much of television is trivia (it is!), teachers can help kids turn on and tune in to the few programs that can enrich their learning years—enrich them with style and grace and in ways that could not easily or cheaply be replicated within school buildings.

There's also radio—the television set without the screen. It's alive and well, thank you, and broadcasting some promising new series on many local educational stations. For example:

• *Mr. Saymore Says* (preschool and kindergarten). The charming interaction between listener and characters on this series helps to clarify useful concepts like *more* or *less; happy* or *sad; before* and *after*.

• *Listening* (grades four through six). This show provides a valuable encounter with a rare skill: listen-

ing. Some of the series titles tell the story: "Identifying Details," "Identifying Main Ideas," "Making Inferences," and "Summarizing."

• *Our Living Language* (grades five and six). This stimulating series presents an overview of words, how they are used, how they are perceived, how they impact on people (if at all). It quickly helps young listeners realize that communication through language is not always what it seems. Communication means getting what's inside their skin inside someone else's skin, and that's usually a precarious venture.

• *They Led the Way* (grades two through five). A thought-provoking little package of biographical sketches, this series includes subjects as diverse but as influential as Jesse Owens, Cesar Chavez, Prince Henry the Navigator, and Sir Edmund Hillary.

(Information on obtaining audiotapes of educational radio programs is available from National Public Radio, 2025 M St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.)

Everybody who considers media thinks of *educational* programming but what about that crass, crude commercial programming? Has it any value in the sacrosanct halls of learning? Many agree that it does.

One place to start hunting for ideas might be the Teachers Guides to Television (P.O. Box 564, Lenox Hills Station, New York 10021.) A brochure describing the various guides to commercial programs is available free. Another place is the weekly TV listings. They usually list several possible shows for classroom use: for example, documentary specials which probe current national and international issues (*First Tuesday, 60 Minutes*). Teachers can assign them in much the same way they assign books—individual viewing with follow-up activities such as discussing the program in class, writing reports, or translating the experience into a different form of the students' choosing (a poem, a drawing, a lyric, an editorial, a script, and so on).

The whole idea is to get young people involved with these programs on some sort of intellectual/emotional basis so they can begin extracting some personal interpretation and meaning. In this way, passive viewing changes into active learning. Commercial television becomes the teacher's tool as well as the sponsor's tool. But not automatically! Using it effectively takes planning and takes time.

The following are other suggestions teachers may find helpful in using commercial television in the classroom. Have students do a comparative study of the concept of law and order in nineteenth and twentieth century America by analyzing *Gunsmoke* and *The Rookies*. Or have them view *The Waltons* as a sociological springboard for analyzing the Thirties—its economics, social mores, family structure, and so on. And how about a study of *Sanford and Son* as a sample of white America's perception of black America (perhaps a modern version of the view once taken in *Amos 'n' Andy*)? And isn't *Maude* an intriguing study of middle middle-class America (in contrast to the view of the lower middle class in *All in the Family*)?

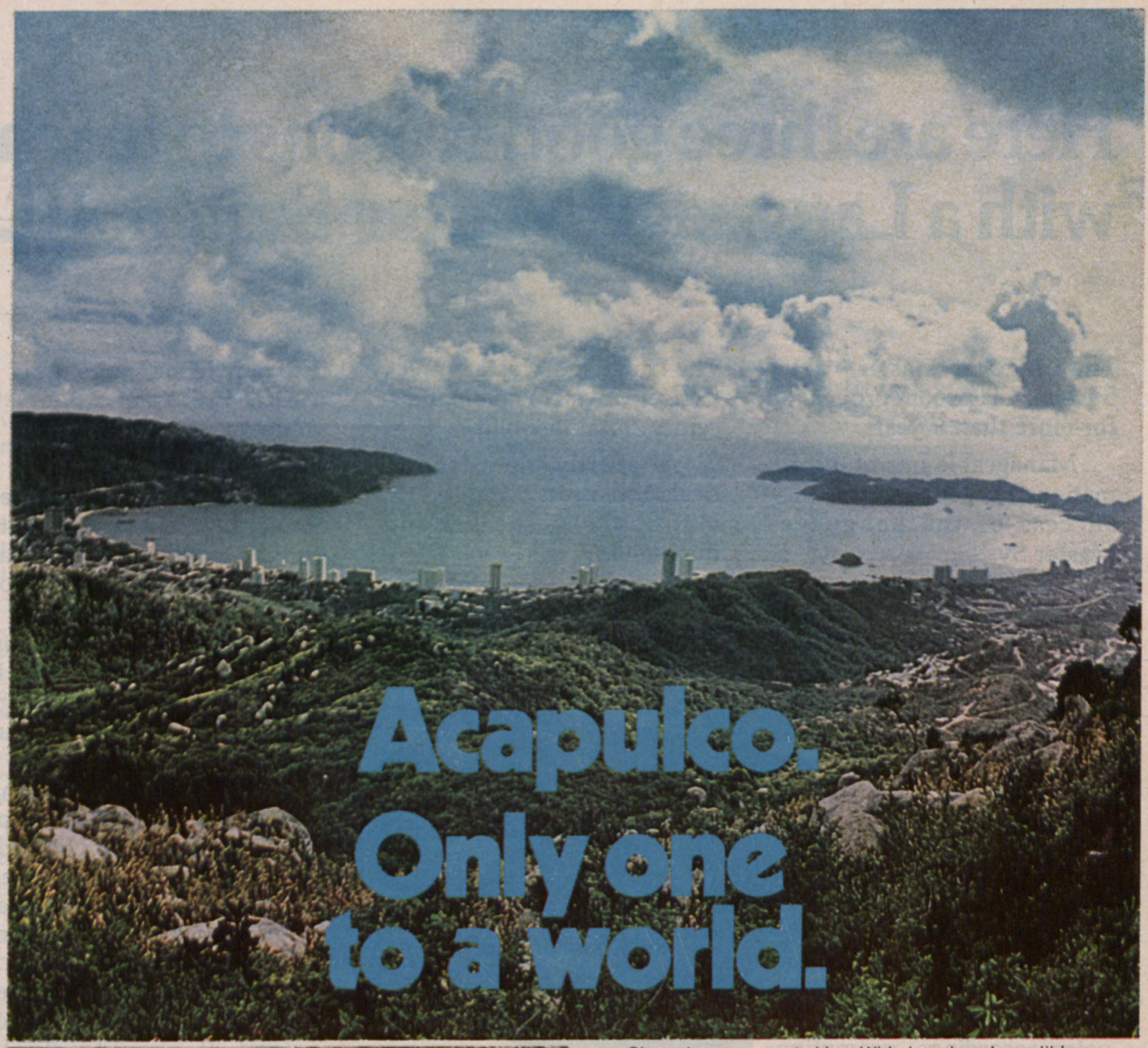
And doesn't the overabundance of "cop shows" say something about our law-and-order syndrome? And can't family situation comedies be used to analyze the composition of modern family structure—its values and the absurdities of how those values are often portrayed? And shouldn't English classes study outstanding television scripts with as much vigor and attention as they study *Silas Marner*? The point is that the electronic word is as important a source for ideas as the written one, and if business, government, and churches can see that, why can't schools?

Naturally, teachers should ask students to analyze the content and the structure of these programs, that is, the viewer should critically examine the production techniques employed (mood music, dialogue, good-guy and bad-guy characterizations, and so on) in addition to the story line. In other words, students need to become *visually* literate, and the media can provide them and teachers with a challenging (and entertaining) tool to accomplish this goal.

While considering commercial media, let's not forget commercial radio. The current wave of nostalgia has resurrected whole libraries of old radio programs, 1930-50 vintage: *Fred Allen, Jack Benny, Suspense, Lights Out, Mr. Keene, Lum and Abner, Life Can Be Beautiful.* Charming and wistful, yes, but instructive, too, in American life and values in a gentler age not so long ago. Check local radio listings to scout which of them are into this nostalgia kick and then get students into it, too. Properly planned, such a unit can do wonders for your social studies and English curriculum.

This article does not give any final answers about media-izing classrooms. It only teases the mind with some possibilities. Making television and radio an integral part of the curriculum is not the whole answer to today's problems in schools, nor are all teachers comfortable using the media in the classroom. Still, using radio and TV in the classroom is one more option at a time when both the school and the student are searching for alternatives to learning. □

Readers interested in more information about and evaluation of television programs for children may wish to obtain *The Family Guide to Children's Television: What To Watch, What To Miss, What To Change and How To Do It* by Evelyn Kaye. Pantheon, 1974. $8.95. Paperback, $2.95.



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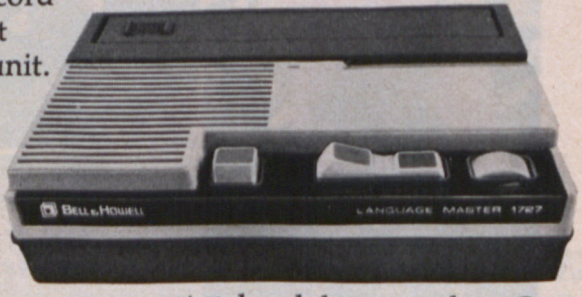

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A National Commitment of Federal Funds

By TERRY HERNDON
NEA Executive Secretary.

In many parts of the world, education is still exclusively for the wealthy. By contrast, America began aiming at universal public education early in the 19th century.

However, inequalities exist in the system—between cities and rural areas, industrial and agricultural states, and in opportunities for males and females, whites and blacks. Every reform movement—and there have been many—has reinforced the right of one more group to an equal educational opportunity.

As evidence of our almost boundless faith in its power, public education has been widely accepted as the vehicle for social progress and reform; for strengthening democracy and participation in the governmental process; for national and individual economic gain; for national military might; and, indeed, for enjoying leisure.

No wonder the continuing struggle for the rights of minorities in our society still centers on the right to equal educational opportunity. This is the genesis of school finance reform. In its 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education* ruling, the U.S. Supreme Court said that ". . . it is doubtful that any child may reasonably be expected to succeed in life if he is denied the opportunity of education."

The Senate Select Committee on Equal Educational Opportunity recently published a study of the cost of inadequate education both to the undereducated persons and to the nation. Among its findings:

1. The failure of males 25 to 34 years of age to attain a minimum of a high school education was estimated in 1969 to cost the nation $237 billion in income over the lifetime of these men and $71 billion in lost government revenues, of which about $47 billion would have gone to the federal treasury and $24 billion to the coffers of state and local governments.

2. In contrast, the probable costs of having provided a high school education for this group was estimated at about $40 billion.

- Thus, the sacrifice in national income from inadequate education among 25- to 34-year-old males was about $200 billion greater than the investment required to alleviate this condition.
- Each dollar of social investment for this purpose would have generated about $6 of national income over the lifetime of this group of men.
- The government revenues generated by this investment would have exceeded government expenditures by over $30 billion.

3. Welfare expenditures attributable to inadequate education are estimated to be about $3 billion *each year* and are probably increasing.

4. The costs to the nation of crime that is related to inadequate education appears to be about $3 billion *a year* and rising.

5. Inadequate education also penalizes the nation by reducing political participation and restricting upward socioeconomic mobility from one generation to the next. It is also a cause of a higher incidence of disease.

Although the nation gains economic benefits from good education and pays heavy penalties for inadequate schooling, property owners resist paying more for their schools as taxes rise, and angry voters have few other taxes to vote against except those which pay for schools. Even some citizens who support schools philosophically are reluctant to provide the extra dollars for better instruction during these times of rapid inflation.

Meanwhile, thousands of elementary and secondary schools are suffering as a result of the nation's economic dilemma. Many states are taking drastic measures because of the economic crunch. Some schools have been forced to close for a time. Teachers are being laid off by the thousands. Many valuable education programs are being eliminated or curtailed. Morale is collapsing as teachers, too, are caught in the economic pinch.

Much of the answer to the problems in education rests with the public and its understanding of the worsening school crisis. As educators, we must make certain that it gets all the evidence—and uses this information wisely.

Despite tremendous gains made in providing education for all age groups, we must point out the weak spots as well as the strong ones. For example, public nursery schools currently enroll less than 8 percent of the children under five years of age—although evidence indicates that the greatest gains in education can be made at this age level.

Latest census data indicate that

18- and 19-year-olds who have dropped out of school without graduating comprise 14.7 percent of all white youth, 25.2 percent of black youth, and 30.7 percent of all youth of Spanish origin.

As teachers, we must work for the support of good schools for students at all age levels and to resist efforts to decrease educational services as a budget-cutting device. This nation can afford good schools in every school district in the United States.

We must not be trapped by the notion that research is inconclusive on the relationship between educational expenditure and educational quality.

In poor school systems with few resources, limited libraries, large classes, and out-of-date textbooks, the poor quality of education is obviously related to the lack of resources. Few—if any—wealthy school systems believe they can cut the level of spending without reducing the quality of education.

Financial equity in education means that the accident of the child's location in a rich or poor school district should not materially affect the resources available to educate the child. One role of the state in funding education is obviously to equalize the revenue which can be obtained locally at reasonable rates of tax effort. This sounds easy, but as anyone familiar with the legislative process can tell you, it is not. Nonetheless, it is a job which must be done, for it is a moral and political problem as well as an educational one.

Some people would leave financing of the schools to the states. Their proposition is that the federal government assume the total cost of public welfare, thus freeing state funds for 100 percent financial support of education. Yet, even if the states equalized educational funding within the states, we would still have the problem of rich states and poor states and a great range of tax effort required to sustain the same quality of education in all states.

The time has come to find a formula that will equalize both the burden on the taxpayer and the educational opportunity for youth.

The time has come to find a formula that will equalize both the burden on the taxpayer and the educational opportunity for youth. It is a foregone conclusion that many state and local communities do not have adequate funds for the operation of their schools—or if they do have the funds, they are not always willing to spend them.

While the states have argued that they have the prime responsibility for public education, many leading school finance experts maintain that the federal government has to play a much larger role if education as we have known it is to survive. They argue that the level of education that American students receive must now be a national concern; its determination can no longer be left to the states alone.

National attention to the quality of education began as early as World War I when the military screening procedures disclosed a high level of illiteracy, particularly in the poorer states. Similar procedures in World War II affirmed that these conditions persisted. The proven illiteracy, plus crowded classrooms caused by the lack of building during World War II and the population growth engendered after it, necessitated federal help.

But federal aid to education was incomplete and slow to come. In the early 1960's, the federal effort in support of public schools averaged about 4 percent of the total school dollar. In 1965, with the passage of the celebrated Elementary and Secondary Education Act, the figure rose to roughly 8 percent. In 1967-68, federal aid to public schools reached the high water mark of 8.8 percent. It has since declined to 7.5 percent under the Nixon Administration.

And while the federal effort in support of the nation's public schools is declining, there is at the same time an increased dependence on the national government to help solve local and state educational problems that are now recognized as national problems.

The federal government provided the leadership in the major educational issues of the 1960's and 1970's, namely: school desegregation, education of the poor and minorities, innovation and experimentation, teacher training programs, vocational education, nutrition and health education, plus many other programs that required national incentives.

We must move toward a national commitment of federal funds to encourage and support a minimum standard of education for all students, to correct the glaring inequities among school districts, and to solve the persistent problems that sap the energies of the classroom teacher.

NEA is drafting legislation to be introduced in the 94th Congress next year. I urge teachers to familiarize themselves with the bill when it is published and to urge its support in their communities and among their political representatives.

The critics will be vocal, and our job is to let our friends in Congress know that our efforts will continue until the job is completed. □

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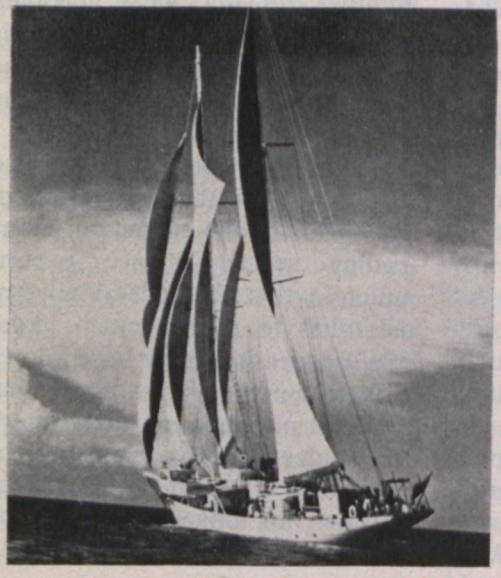

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College Faculty Women Fight Sex Bias

More than two years ago, Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the 1963 Equal Pay Act were amended to include coverage for educators on all levels. Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 also outlaws sex bias in admissions, treatment of students, and employment of staff. (See "The Law and Teacher Rights," p. 19.) These laws augmented executive orders prohibiting discrimination on the basis of sex by federal contractors and subcontractors, including colleges and universities, and requiring these employers to establish affirmative action plans.

Progress has been made, particularly in the area of salary equity where faculty, administrators, and nonprofessional staff received millions of dollars in increases and accumulated back pay after institutions reexamined salary scales for compliance with the Equal Pay Act and Executive Order 11246. The affirmative action area also shows signs of encouragement as some universities develop plans with faculty input which have received HEW approval. Furthermore, there have been important increases in the involvement of women in major and mid-level administrative positions at state universities and land grant colleges. The increase at middle management levels will create a pool of women available for promotion to decision-making posts.

Affirmative action will be strengthened through new federal reporting requirements which will tighten procedures for evaluating such action. Contractors must provide the compliance agency with a work-force analysis by race and sex in terms of job classifications ranked by salary, including managerial positions within each organizational unit. This information will provide criteria for analyzing the sources of discrimination and a base line to enable institutions to measure their progress or lack of progress in the area of job equality.

Teachers can maximize affirmative action as a tool for change by insisting on inclusion of plans in employment contracts, collective bargaining agreements, grievance procedures, and personnel policies.

Because of delays in obtaining a clear federal and institutional response, however, many women are resorting to federal court action to achieve fair and nondiscriminatory treatment by employing colleges and universities. Women who have filed complaints with the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission are obtaining "right to sue" notice from EEOC or the Justice Department and are filing Title VII suits on their own behalf.

Under Title VII, the court may award up to two years' back wages and attorneys' fees and costs and also order an employer of more than 15 employees to change its employment policies. Thus, employers may be forced to recruit and employ more women and to promote them.

All a complainant needs to show in filing a Title VII case is a pattern of discrimination—for example, the failure to promote women, sex segregation of jobs, or policies which have the *effect* of excluding women. Once a differential result is estab-

lished, the burden is placed on the employer to prove that the practice is necessary to the conduct of its business. If women have been excluded from particular jobs, the employer must show that substantially all women are incapable of performing the work.

Legal proceedings were instituted against the University of California at Davis, which, it is alleged, refused to award tenure and promotion in 1971 to Susan Regan McKillop, an assistant professor in the Art Department, on the basis of her sex.

Dr. McKillop, the brief notes, demonstrated an outstanding performance including very high ratings in surveys of teaching effectiveness and a major scholarly book which top Renaissance art scholars have predicted will be the standard work on the subject.

Her lawsuit, which is supported by NEA, challenges a wide variety of unfair practices, such as the way in which discrimination against females is fostered and protected by personnel procedures which are conducted in secrecy, thus giving tenure candidates neither the opportunity to be heard nor the reasons for denial of tenure.

These procedures are alleged to violate Dr. McKillop's due process and equal protection rights under the Fourteenth Amendment as well as Title VII. Noted also in the suit are statistical data illustrating a pervasive pattern and practice of discrimination against professional women on the Davis campus.

The brief cites a report to the chancellor in which it is noted that despite the fact that women received 43.5 percent of art Ph.D.'s granted nationwide for 1969-70, in October 1972, the Davis campus Art Department had no ranking female staff members. If the department hired from the available pool of qualified women, at least five members of professorial rank in the department should be women. Dr. McKillop also charges that an art historian and tenured member of the art department who is hostile to women art historians influenced his tenured departmental colleagues to vote against her.

In another case—this one at Lenoir Rhyne College in North Carolina—Annie Laurie Keyes, a tenured professor of education, was informed in March 1972 that her contract would not be extended beyond the following academic year. The college, noting that she had reached the age of 65, has refused to restore Dr. Keyes to the faculty, despite the fact that it continues to employ male faculty 65 and older by means of yearly extensions based on teaching effectiveness and health.

After challenging her dismissal through college channels and the EEOC, Dr. Keyes filed a Title VII suit this spring, authorized by EEOC. In her class action suit backed by the NEA and the North Carolina Association of Educators, she charges the college with discriminatory practices based on age and sex. Dr. Keyes insists that as a tenured employee she is entitled to be retained in the absence of just cause and to be given due process prior to dismissal.

Retirement pension systems that appear to discriminate against women are also under legal scrutiny. Some state systems, for example, require male and female teachers to contribute equally but provide smaller benefits to women on the theory that women live longer than men. EEOC guidelines indicate that plans which treat men and women unequally with respect to benefits or retirement ages are illegal. An NEA resolution supports the EEOC position.

A precedential ruling on unemployment compensation for pregnant women was won last year by Sabine Jordan, a former Connecticut College faculty member. A federal court declared a provision in the Connecticut law which imposed a mandatory disqualification for the receipt of unemployment benefits on the basis of pregnancy to be in violation of the Constitution. The court ruled that pregnant claimants in Connecticut are entitled to the same benefits available to all other claimants.

A class action suit against the State of Virginia's higher education system was initiated last winter. Backed by NEA, the Fourteenth Amendment suit attacks the whole spectrum of discriminatory practices with respect to women as a class in such areas as recruiting, salary, promotion, tenure, retirement, and exclusion of faculty wives from faculty positions.

One of the plaintiffs, a former professor of foreign languages, charges that because of sex bias she was hired at a lower salary than men and denied comparable raises or promotions even though her academic credentials, publications, and teaching performance exceed those of her male counterparts.

Among allegations put forth by another plaintiff is that she was excluded from employee management programs in which she has expertise and assigned a larger teaching load than that usually assigned to those doing research.

The third plaintiff alleges she was forced to retire at the age of 65 while male faculty are consistently permitted to teach through age 70 or longer.

As a result of anti-nepotism rules that force universities to choose between husbands and wives, the wives' careers often suffer.

An out-of-court settlement with the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, last year, reinstated one faculty wife as a full-salaried associate professor with full retirement and health benefits. Aino Jarvesoo was eligible for, but denied, tenure in 1961 because her husband was

(Continued on page 62)

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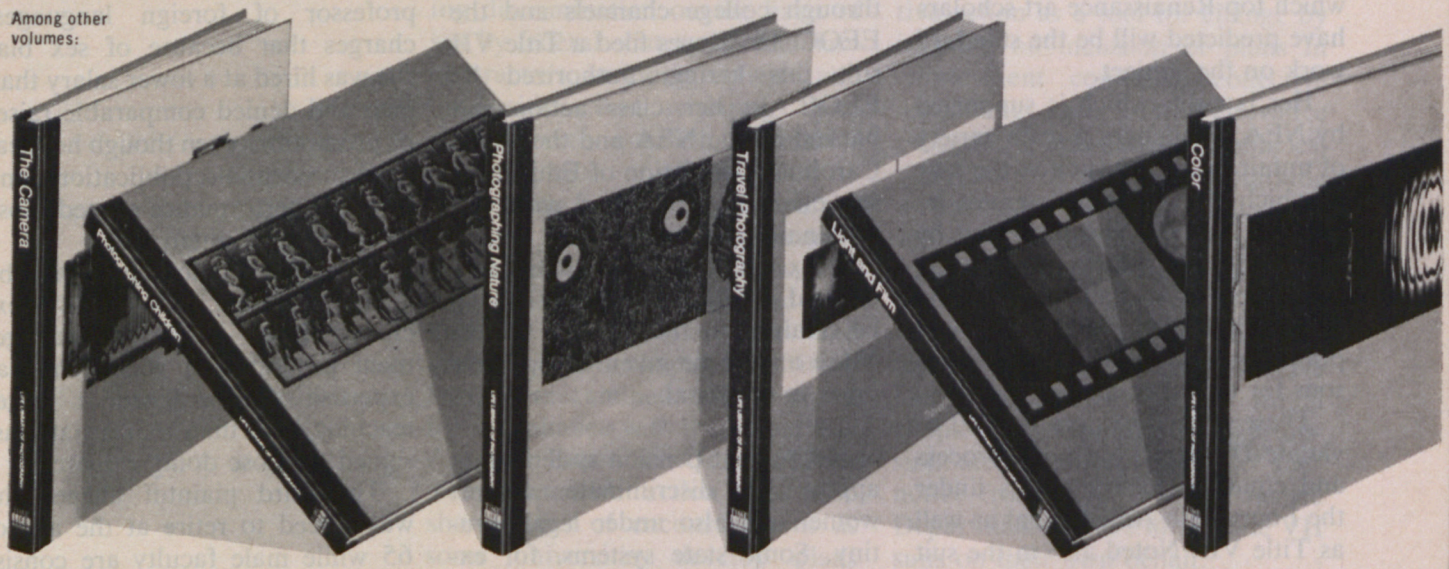

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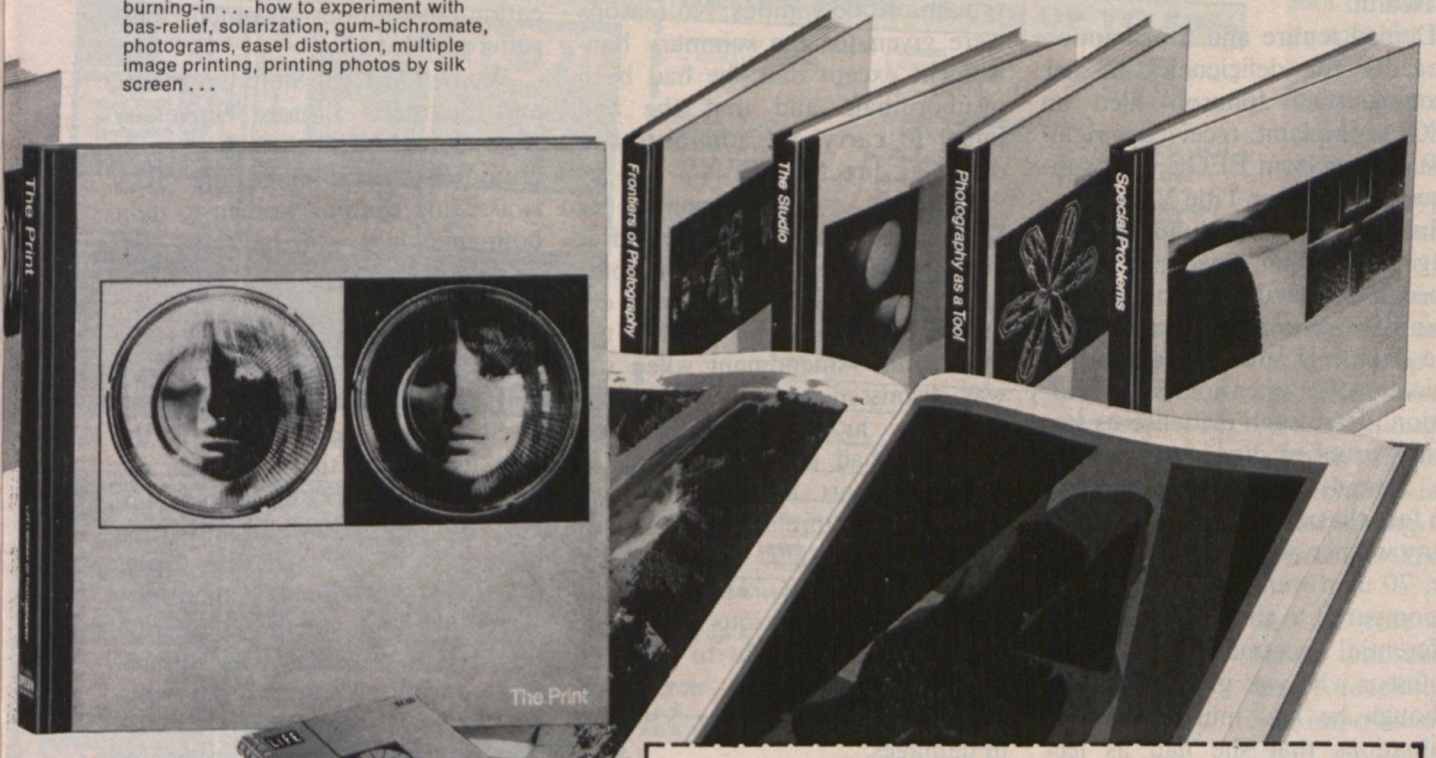

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already on tenure. Four years later when she was fired—only 23 days before she would have qualified for retirement benefits—she claimed she was told that the university would not grant tenure to two members of the same family or permit two family members a rank above instructor.

Still on the faculty as a result of of a preliminary injunction issued by a federal court in May 1973, one month before her dismissal was to become final, is Sharon L. Johnson, a biochemist on the faculty of the University of Pittsburgh's School of Medicine and principal investigator for a research grant from the National Institutes of Health.

Denied tenure and a promotion allegedly for deficiencies in her teaching, Dr. Johnson filed an EEOC complaint, received a right-to-sue letter from EEOC, and subsequently filed her Title VII suit.

In issuing the injunction, the judge noted that "evidence established a reasonable probability of plaintiff's success on the merits." The Title VII suit makes a prima facie case for intentional discrimination, using such evidence as statistical proof of discrimination (in the School of Medicine, despite the fact that over a six-year period many women were eligible for tenure, 70 men were given that status as compared to three women); the differential treatment of a male professor who was granted tenure, although he had much the same evaluations that she had as lecturer; the raises given men regardless of their tenure in the Biochemistry Department for the years 1967-72 that were higher than those given Johnson; the failure of the Medical School to take substantial steps to increase the number of faculty women, despite its affirmative action program.

Courts have upheld outspoken faculty women who have suffered reprisals for questioning employment practices at their institutions. In February 1973, Shirley Schell, a division director, along with approximately 40 percent of the faculty at the Northern branch of Delaware Technical and Community College, filed charges of sex, race, and religious discrimination against the college administration with both EEOC and Delaware's agency for dealing with employment discrimination.

Despite previous written notification that she was to be rehired for the following academic year, in May 1973, Ms. Schell was informed of her immediate suspension with pay and termination and ordered to clean out her desk and remain off the campus. No reasons were given for the summary banishment except that she had been insubordinate and that she had failed to carry out administrative duties as directed.

Ordering reinstatement for Schell, less than two months after her suspension, the federal court declared that Schell had been deprived of her rights under the Fourteenth Amendment when she was dismissed without a hearing. Said the judge: "The termination . . . had no factual basis or factual support, and not only was for a reason unrelated to her employment, but also for federally protected activity. Thus, it was arbitrary and capricious and a violation of Schell's right to substantive due process." A negotiated settlement later gave her $30,600 in damages.

A related issue—academic freedom—is also at stake in the case of a faculty member who last spring was not recommended for tenure or promotion at a midwestern state university allegedly because of the quality of her teaching, scholarly works, research, and community service. She pioneered a women's studies program on campus and has been active in feminist activities nationally.

She claims that although she was hired to develop a women's studies program, her research and publications in that area have not been given fair consideration by her department's all-male tenured faculty in its tenure deliberations.

Reductions in force—precipitated by declining student enrollments and the pressures of reduced budgets—have had a severe impact on female faculty. Often denied tenure and/or full-time positions, women are less likely to benefit from job security rights set forth in collective bargaining agreements. In situations where master agreements do not exist—and this occurs in a majority of higher education institutions—women have suffered job losses.

Women at Kent State University and Southern Illinois University have alerted NEA to their sex discrimination complaints, and NEA is assisting campus women to fight both inequality in pay and job losses.

Federal court litigation described in this article is receiving financial and legal support through the NEA DuShane Emergency Fund. In the past four years the Fund has authorized nearly $200,000 in support of women's rights litigation for educators on all levels. Issues litigated to date include maternity leave, unemployment compensation during pregnancy, use of sick leave during pregnancy, anti-nepotism rules, salary equity, promotion, and equal pay supplements for female referees.

Aggrieved women will continue to seek redress in the courts until employers eliminate employment discrimination on the basis of sex and correct the effects of past discrimination in accordance with recent laws and affirmative action requirements.

—**Betty E. Sinowitz,** *special assistant, DuShane Emergency Fund, NEA Teacher Rights.*

Alternatives in the Public School

By MARIO D. FANTINI
Professor and Dean of the Faculty of Education, State University College, New Paltz, New York.

Alternative forms of education are springing up in public schools all over the country. I call my plan for alternatives Public Schools of Choice.

This plan calls for cooperation of teachers, parents, and students in the development of a variety of legitimate educational options within our public schools. Choice is a key term in this plan. Each of the participating groups — teachers, parents, and students (the agents closest to the action)—have a choice of the option that best supports their style.

Public Schools of Choice is also based on the assumption that each teacher has a style of teaching and each student, a style of learning. Providing opportunities for a more compatible matching of teaching-learning styles can help promote further the long-held educational ideals of individualization and personalization. Teachers will perform a key role, not only in deciding which of the alternatives best supports their teaching style, but also in designing options. Since parents, students, and teachers are brought together by mutual consent and not by chance, the mismatches of the past which led to frustration for both teacher and student can be avoided.

Public Schools of Choice establishes standard education as a legitimate option. We have overloaded the standard pattern of education, expecting this approach to reach all teachers, students, and parents. No one pattern of education can reach everyone, and in a diverse society such as ours, a responsive system of public education provides a range of options and choices, including the standard.

To get any new system to operate, participants must agree on ground rules. To make Public Schools of Choice work, the following ground rules are essential.

- *No alternative within a public system of choice practices exclusivity.* No school or alternative can exclude a child because of race, religion, financial status, or —within reason—the nature of previous educational background. The schools must be truly open, able to survive on the basis of their educational merits and their ability to meet the needs of the students and the parents they serve.
- *Each school works toward a comprehensive set of educational objectives.* These objectives or educational goals must be common to all schools within the system of choice. They should include mastery of the basic skills, nurturing of physical and emotional development, and vocational and avocational preparation. The student must be equipped with a broad range of skills so that he will have as many alternatives and opportunities as possible for social and educational mobility.

Within a system of Public Schools of Choice, the real issue is not what goals to set, but how best to achieve the goals set. The system itself seeks out new means of increasing the chances for the student to mature as a maker of choices rather than to be a mere victim of circumstances.

- *A ground rule intrinsic to the idea of a free and open society and, therefore, to the notion of Public Schools of Choice is that no person or group imposes an educational plan or design.* Within a system of choice, the consumer shops around as in a supermarket or cafeteria, choosing, testing, and finally settling on a school or learning environment that appeals to him.

If 90 percent of the consumers settle on approach A and only 10 percent want approach B, then 90 percent of the system's schools provide approach A and 10 percent, approach B.

Each community has to determine how many consumers are necessary to warrant setting up a new alternative. The point here, however, is that once the minimum percentage is established, the individual consumer can choose his own option, rather than having to accept one program because there are no alternatives.

Similarly, teachers are free to choose the alternatives that best support their styles of teaching. No one alternative is imposed on a teacher.

Obviously, new approaches will necessitate the retraining of teachers, but this can become an integral part of the staff development program of the school district.

- *Each new alternative can eventually operate on a financial level equivalent to the per capita cost of the school district as a whole.* Although each new option

may be permitted some additional costs for initial planning and development, it must conform to the standard per student cost of the total system within a reasonable period of time. This ground rule insures that a public school system of choice results in a wiser, more productive use of existing monies.

Some may ask whether a Nazi school or an antiwhite one for Blacks could exist within the framework of a public system of choice. Obviously, it could not. The concept speaks to openness. It values diversity, is democratic, and is unswerving in its recognition of individual worth.

Within these bounds, however, there is a full spectrum of alternative possibilities with new educational and learning forms. Schools could, for example, emphasize science or languages or the arts; they could be graded or ungraded, open or traditional, technical or nontechnical; they could seek a multicultural approach or work to strengthen particular ethnic and group identities. Each, however, must meet the standard principles which are fundamental to a public school system of choice.

Respecting the rights and responsibilities of others, for example, cannot work if the option being promulgated is based on a system which advocates the imposition of one's own values on others.

- *Each alternative provides another approach to education alongside the existing pattern, which continues to be legitimate.* Every legitimatized educational option is equally valid. The standard approach to education, therefore, is an important alternative and should not be eliminated or forced to take the brunt of criticism.
- *Each alternative includes a plan for evaluation.* Since each alternative needs to achieve the same ends, assessment is essential for at least two reasons: to gather evaluation information as a basis for continuing to improve the option and to help determine the relative effectiveness of each option.

What constitutes a legitimate educational option under these rules is a critical question.

Public schools have a responsibility to equip each learner with the skills needed for economic, political, and social survival. At the same time, they must provide him with the tools needed for improving, transforming, and reconstructing elements of the environment generally recognized as inimical to the noblest aspirations of the nation or as detrimental to the growth and development of the individual.

Speaking practically, public schools must provide opportunities for each learner to discover his talents. Our public schools are necessarily talent development centers, linking talent to economic careers. As such, public schools encompass economic "livelihood" objectives as an important set of educational ends. If an educational option discounted this set of objectives, it would be suspect as a legitimate alternative within the framework of public education.

Public Schools of Choice can work only when students, parents, teachers, and administrators all have equal access to educational options at both the conceptual and operational levels. But, unless the parent or consumer is aware of the existence of new alternatives, he is left with only the ones with which he is familiar and is forced to play by the ground rules established by the existing system. Then the question which must be posed is: What mechanism must be developed to bring relevant educational information to the public?

The administration of a school system might assume the leadership role by arranging informational meetings with the groups involved. Such meetings could lead parent associations to hold more meetings to explore educational options. Student groups at the elementary, junior high, and high school levels and teacher organizations could do the same thing. After careful planning, the school system could launch trial programs, either in one school or in a cluster of them. Under certain conditions, a whole district could mount a special program.

While Public Schools of Choice works best when an entire school goes into the plan and provides many options for all students and teachers, it may be desirable to start by trying options not too dissimilar to the school's present operational style.

Developing choices at the individual school level can, however, pose a number of problems. For example, as the different segments of the public explore new options, a group might find itself involved in scanning an almost endless list of reading materials. This would not necessarily be bad, but it could leave the participants with a narrow view of the learning process.

If, on the other hand, a community undertook a conceptual examination of educational alternatives, participants might indeed achieve a better background for decision making. It is one thing to become knowledgeable about a concept or idea and quite another to become familiar with the intricate details that go into making the idea work. While it is obvious that some knowledge of detail is necessary, students, parents, and citizens in general need not be as well-informed about the subtleties of pedagogy as are professionals.

Professional educators have the responsibility for the substance and techniques of education, but the consumers must be responsible for determining the kind of education they want. They must, therefore, have the opportunity to perform this crucial policy role. Thus, a new standard of professional and lay participation could lead to

more sensible educational conceptions, supported by both groups.

One way to consider alternatives is to place them on a continuum on the basis of how much freedom a student has to choose the elements of learning, i.e., how much freedom he has to choose the teacher, the content, the learning methodology, the time, the place.

At one extreme, the learner selects what he will learn, with whom, when, where, and how. At this end of the continuum, he has the greatest freedom. At the other extreme, he has no choice of teacher, content, methodology, time, and place. Institutional procedures and requirements predetermine the conditions of learning for him.

Between these extremes, there is a range of possibilities. The learner can be free to choose certain content areas, but not others, which are required for everyone (reading, writing, arithmetic, physical education, health). He may have some freedom in how he wishes to approach these content areas (by reading a book, by viewing videotapes, by doing research, by listening to a lecture, by discussing with others). He may have some freedom to choose the time and place to learn. For example, he may enter into a contract with the teacher to accomplish a project by a certain time.

There are obviously different types of free school alternatives—ranging from an Illich/Reimer model, which de-emphasizes schooling, to a Summerhill model, which uses the school as a type of self-governing unit. Free school alternatives are the most difficult to legitimize under a public school framework at this time and will probably remain outside as private alternative schools, since they run counter to the emerging ground rules for alternative public schools.

The open phase of the continuum overlaps with the free, but limits the range of choice the learner has. Thus, while a student can choose when and how he will learn science or math, they are, nevertheless, still required subjects, and the teacher helps guide the student in various content areas.

Such an educational continuum can be charted briefly as indicated below.

The British infant school, Montessori, and schools without walls could be examples under the open category. Ungraded continuous progress, modular scheduling, and behavior modification are possible alternatives under the modified. Formally organized, age-graded schools and uniformly regimented academies tend to fall into standard options.

There are various ways of providing educational options based on choice: Options can be based on (1) existing teacher styles; (2) classroom patterns, e.g., standard, Montessori, behavior modification, British infant; (3) teams of teachers forming schools within schools, e.g., Quincy (Illinois) Senior High II has seven subschools—standard, flexible, independent, fine arts, career, special, and vocational; (4) "new" school options which are housed in a setting apart from established schools. For example, in Los Angeles, there are four "off site" alternative schools located in different areas of the school system.

Once optional education and the ground rules of the choice system are understood, an entire district may want to develop a framework of alternatives for its schools. The following is a typical list from which parents, students, teachers, and administrators can choose.

Alternative 1 is a traditional approach. It is graded and emphasizes the learning of basic skills by cognition. The basic learning environment is the classroom, which functions with one or two teachers instructing and directing students at their various learning tasks. Students are encouraged to adjust to the school and its operational style, rather than vice versa. The students with recognized learning problems are referred to a variety of remedial and school-support programs. A central board of education determines the entire educational and fiscal policy for this school.

ALTERNATIVES ON A FREEDOM-TO-PRESCRIPTION CONTINUUM*

Free	*Free-Open*	Open	*Open-Modified*	*Modified*	*Modified-Standard*	*Standard*
Learner-directed and controlled. Learner has complete freedom to orchestrate his own education. Teacher is one resource.	Opening of school to the community and its resources. Noncompetitive environment. No student failures. Curriculum is viewed as social system rather than as course of studies. Learner-centered.	Learner has considerable freedom to choose from a wide range of content areas considered relevant by teacher, parent, and student. Resource centers in major skill areas made available to learner. Teacher is supportive guide.	Teacher-student planning. Teacher-centered.	Prescribed content is made more flexible through individualization of instruction; school is ungraded; students learn same thing but at different rates. Using team teaching, teachers plan a differentiated approach to the same content. Teacher and programmed course of study are the major sources of student learning.	Competitive environments. School is the major instructional setting. Subject matter-centered.	Learner adheres to institution requirements uniformly prescribed: what is to be taught—how, when, where, and with whom. Teacher is instructor-evaluator. Student passes or fails according to normative standards.

* *Mario D. Fantini, "Alternatives Within Public Schools,"* Phi Delta Kappan, *Special Issue on Alternative Schools, March 1973, pp. 447-8.*

Alternative 2 is nontraditional and nongraded. In many ways it is like a British primary school with lots of constructional and manipulative materials in each area where students work and learn.

The teacher acts as a facilitator —one who assists and guides, rather than directs or instructs. Most student activity is in the form of specialized learning projects carried on individually and in small groups. Many of the learning experiences and activities take place outside the school.

Alternative 3 emphasizes talent development and focuses on creative experiences, human services, and concentration in a particular field, e.g., art, media, space, science, dramatics, music. The school defines its role as diagnostic and prescriptive: It identifies the learner's talents and orchestrates whatever experiences seem necessary to develop and enhance them. It encourages many styles of learning and teaching. Students may achieve by demonstration and by manipulation of real objects as well as by verbal, written, or abstractive performances.

Alternative 4 is more oriented to techniques than the others in the district. It utilizes computers to help diagnose individual needs and abilities and provides computer-assisted instruction based on the diagnosis for individuals and groups.

The library stocks tape-recording banks and has carrels in which students, on their own, can "talk" to and listen to tapes or work with manipulative objects. In addition, wide use is made of educational media which enable students and teachers to individualize many of the learning tasks. The school also has facilities for closed-circuit T.V.

Alternative 5 is a total community school. Operating on a 12- to 14-hour basis at least six days a week throughout the year, it provides educational and other services for children of varying ages from the neighborhood and evening classes and activities for adults.

Services in such areas as health, legal aid, and employment are available within the school facility. Paraprofessionals or community teachers contribute to every phase of the regular school program. A community board governs the school.

Alternative 6 has a Montessori environment. Students move at their own pace and are largely self-directed. The learning areas are rich in materials and specialized learning instruments from which the students can select as they wish. Although teachers operate within a specific, defined methodology, they remain in the background, guiding students rather than directing them. Special emphasis is placed on the development of the five senses.

Alternative 7, patterned after the Multi-Culture Institute in San Francisco, may have four or five ethnic groups equally represented in the student body. Students spend part of each day in racially heterogeneous learning groups. During another part of the day, students and teachers of the same ethnic background meet together. In these classes, all learn the culture, language, customs, history, and heritage of their ethnic groups.

A policy board made up of equal numbers of parents and teachers runs the school and is only tangentially responsible to a central board of education.

Alternative 8 is subcontracted. For example, a group of teachers, parents, and students could be delegated authority to operate a particular alternative. Or certain private school alternatives can petition to become part of the public schools.

Alternatives help give new direction to pre- and in-service education of teachers. If some options are in greater demand than others, then certain teachers (perhaps those who express the desire) can be helped to staff them. After all, even if there were no options, teachers would still require in-service education.

Public Schools of Choice can encourage closer ties between community and schools, professionals and laymen. Without professional leadership which promotes cooperation of all parties concerned, alternatives can be imposed and often opposed.

The Public Schools of Choice system would be a renewal system, that is, the options under a broad public framework would be judged by results. As the results associated with quality education were realized more in one model than in another, the attractiveness of the successful model would grow. The options that were more successful would most likely be in more demand, thus triggering a self-renewing process. □

This article has been adapted from Dr. Fantini's latest book, *Public Schools of Choice,* Simon and Schuster. 1974. Dr. Fantini is former program officer, Ford Foundation and coauthor of *The Disadvantaged: Challenge to Education; Making Urban Schools Work; The Reform of Urban Schools;* and *Toward Humanistic Education: A Curriculum of Affect.*

Those Morning Announcements

By TOM PARKS
State English Consultant, South Carolina State Department of Education, Columbia.

In the back of his mind, the principal could tell from long experience that this was going to be a typical day. In the adjoining office, the secretary was already taking the usual calls from substitute teachers, students, parents, and board members; and the hallways were slowly beginning to clear as students and faculty settled into classrooms to begin the day's routine.

The principal stepped over to the intercom to make the morning announcements.

"Your attention please," he spoke clearly into the microphone.

"Mrs. Bryan's fifth period history class will join Mr. Mather's classes today in the auditorium for a film on the Civil War."

Sitting in her empty classroom, Mrs. Bryan didn't react—indeed, barely heard the announcement. She seemed to hear little nowadays. Her husband had died at Christmastime and her thoughts were still full of the aching emptiness he had left behind.

"All juniors are to report to the library tomorrow during second period for career and placement testing."

In room 12-C, three boys shuffled nervously. Richard was popular, and everyone knew he was college-bound. But Richard realized that these tests did not measure how well-liked a person was. He gazed at a piece of chalk on the floor and bit his nails.

In the corner of the last row, Jerry penciled a flowery design on the desk top and resigned himself to the inevitable. Another placement test. He was behind in reading ability and somehow never seemed able to catch up on that or anything else at school since his parents got a divorce and he had taken the part-time job to help his mother with expenses.

Mason stared at nothing in particular. His 17 years seemed to him to be nothing but a series of tests and hurdles in which he had to prove himself better than others. His father's advice, "Win at any price," hounded him. Lately the price was getting to be more than Mason could pay.

"Will Alfreda Neuman please report to the office to claim her handbag."

Two classes of juniors broke out in derisive laughter. Success!

They had planted a handbag in the gym with several unmentionable items and a fake identity for a nonexistent girl. Just one of the many pointless escapades that, like a new television series, come wrapped in sound and fury signifying nothing.

"Will Student Council members on the Bookstore Committee please meet with me in the office tomorrow during first period."

Down in the supply room, the custodian nodded his head and sighed. Finally, maybe something would be done about the writing with felt-tip pens in the rest rooms. He had scraped and painted and sprayed over more graffiti since the bookstore started selling felt-tip pens than in all his previous 23 years on the job put together.

"All boys trying out for the football squad are to report to the gymnasium today at 4:00."

In his office, Coach Thornhill prayed: "Lord, let there be sleeping giants among those who try out—players who will awaken to my touch this year." The last season had been as lukewarm as the coffee he was now drinking, and these days he felt a chill from many of the fair-weather fans in the community. He laughed ironically to himself everytime he heard other teachers discussing the "new" idea of accountability. Hell, coaches had never known anything else!

"Tomorrow, a group of observers will accompany our district supervisor on a tour of classrooms. I hope everyone will be courteous and helpful to our visitors."

A communal groan arose. Tomorrow would be straight out of *Space Odyssey*: clinical lesson plans, perfect cafeteria lines, orderly class changes, clean halls, and about 17 extra volts of electricity in the air.

"The basketball cheerleaders will present our new first-place trophy from the district play-offs to the team captain in the auditorium during lunch period. All loyal fans are urged to be on hand."

Down in room 119, Debbie felt another wave of nausea. A first-place trophy was not the only thing brought back from the district game. Debbie was pregnant.

The announcements ended, the principal flipped off the intercom, and headed for a district principals' meeting. A visiting professor was scheduled to explain a new formula that would solve classroom educational problems by computer.

A typical day. □

Motivating Students

By MARILYN VAN DERBUR
A Former Miss America (and Member of Phi Beta Kappa); Motivation Specialist; Corporate Consultant.

As a professional speaker for the past decade, I became interested in motivating teenagers after student audiences told me that I made them want to "try harder." In 1969 alone, I spoke to more than 250,000 teenagers from Maine to California and, more recently, I created and taught an eight-class mini-course on motivation to students in grades seven through 12 in Denver and Phoenix.

Let me briefly discuss three of the lessons in the course, which are available on cassettes for individuals and on film for classes. The idea for the first one came from an experience I had had when I addressed California Girls State several years ago. After I had given my motivational talk, a girl asked, "What happens when everything you do is a failure?" The girl was successful in school, or she would not have been chosen to attend Girls State. But her question indicated that in her own mind she did not think of herself as a successful human being. I discovered that other teenagers have similar feelings.

So, for the first class of the mini-course, the students and I discussed the topic: What is success? What is failure? I handed out a sheet of paper with brief biographical sketches on it. The instructions were: "Listed below are 24 descriptions of people. Based on these sketches, decide whether they were successes or failures."

Excerpts from some of the descriptions follow:

- Wanted to be a leader; ran for president of his freshman class in college and, according to his mother, was "swamped."
- Wanted to be a military leader or great statesman; as a student, three times failed his exams to enter the Royal Military College.
- Had 24 brothers and sisters, lived in poverty; shuttled from one foster home to another; dropped out of high school at 16.

The students in the mini-course labeled most of the people on the list as failures. Then we devoted the period to discussing the people.

In looking at the first example, the groups realized that there probably was not a student in the room who had not run for something—second grade treasurer, third grade secretary, or whatever—and lost, some believing therefore that they were not cut out to be leaders and so never again trying for elected office. But when they realized that John F. Kennedy was the person who had lost as president of his freshman class, they began to identify with him and to ask, What is success? What is failure?

And when they learned that one of the greatest men of the twentieth century, Winston Churchill, failed his entrance exams for Sandhurst three times, they began to think about those questions even more. The same was true when they discovered that Flip Wilson was the boy who had lived in poverty and dropped out of school.

We discussed more examples.

- Wanted to be a performer; went to drama school in New York, but the school told her that she had no acting ability.

Lucille Ball is the woman. I went into detail about her earlier life, then asked: "How old do you think she was when the first *I Love Lucy Show* went on the air? Twenty-two? Twenty-seven? She was 40 years old."

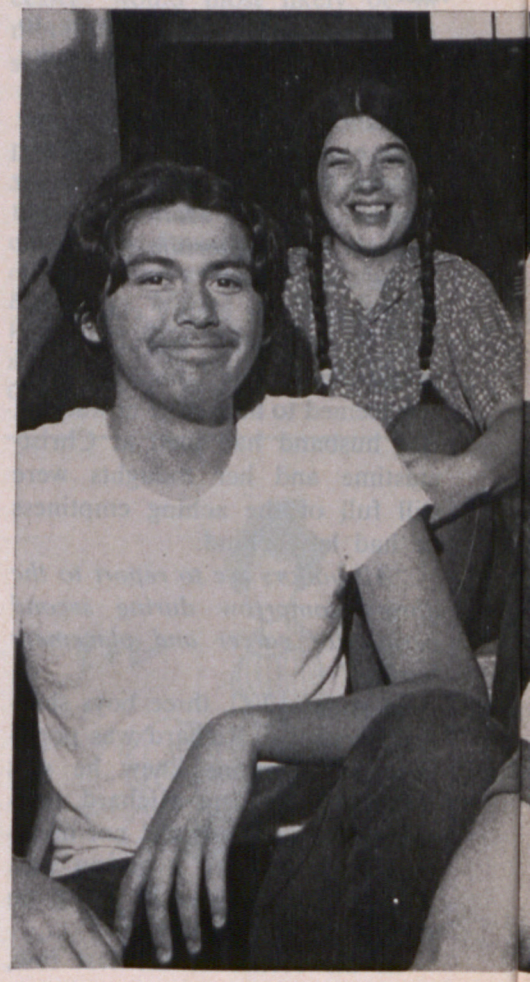
- Wanted to be a lawyer; entered law school and quit; entered another law school and quit.

The person is Judge John J. Sirica. (Of course, he returned to law school and graduated.)

- Held for more than 20 years the world's record for striking out; walked to the plate 1,330 times, struck the air, and took that long, humiliating walk to the bench.

The baseball player is Babe Ruth, longtime holder of the world's record for home runs.

After we looked at the examples, I challenged: "What are you



counting? Your successes or your failures? Are you never going to raise your hand again in class because the last time you did your answer was wrong and you were embarrassed?

"You decide what your life is going to be. You can give up trying or you can find something that is important to you and find the way to accomplish it.

"What is success? What is failure? If you labeled everyone of these 24 people as a success, you were right. If you labeled everyone as a failure, you were also right because everyone on this list and everyone in this room is both."

At the end of the first class period, I asked, "What do these ideas mean to you in your own life?" Here are some typical student reactions:

- "These ideas will cause me to try harder in everything—just a little bit harder—and this time with some hope inside me."
- "I started thinking I was a defendant in a court with a judge, jury, and prosecutor. I could hear the words of the judge ringing out so clearly, 'Guilty on a charge of not putting your best foot forward and not hanging on to your personal ideals.'"
- "These ideas will cause me to think twice before I drop out of school or run away. Instead of giving up, I guess I'll just keep trying and finish school." (An incredible number of students I have met are thinking about dropping out.)
- "When you said what you did today, I realized that I have something to live for. Now I know I have to try harder."
- "These ideas impressed me greatly. At home, I don't have much encouragement. When I tell my mother I plan to be a success, she tells me I won't be because I'm black or I won't be because I'm lazy. But after listening to the examples you gave, I feel stronger than ever that I can succeed."

Helping all students achieve their goals aids them in building a positive self-image.

In another class period, the students said, "We're going to try again. But how hard do we try? How long do we try? How do we know when to quit?"

In discussing answers to these questions, I told them about Ernest Hemingway and how he had won both the Nobel Prize and the Pulitzer Prize. "Do you know how many times he rewrote the last chapter of *A Farewell to Arms*?" I asked. "Thirty-nine times. Sometimes he would spend an entire morning on one paragraph."

Then I asked, "Does the best woman or man win?" I had some statistics on a large piece of cardboard to help with the answer. They pointed up the following facts: In 1915, Ty Cobb stole 96 bases, a record that held for nearly 50 years. In 1922, Max Carey succeeded in 51 out of 53 attempted steals, a success rate of 96 percent, which baseball experts think has probably never been bettered.

Then why has Ty Cobb gone down as the greatest base stealer of his era? Maybe because he was willing to risk more, to fail more, while Carey would wait to steal a base until he knew he was going to get there. Who was really the better base stealer?

"Does the best woman or man win? Is the brightest student the one who gets the scholarship? Does the best natural athlete make the team? There are no pat answers. There are no ironclad definitions for success and failure."

The most important class period

was the one in which we discussed the importance of having a goal and a plan to achieve it. I believe that helping students with their goals aids them in building a positive self-image.

When Billie Jean King was only 12 years old, she told her mother, "Some day I'm going to win at Wimbledon." Her plan included daily practice, tournaments, analyzing defeats. She would determine what had caused a defeat and then work to overcome it.

In class, every student was asked to write down a goal—something to be accomplished within a couple of months or a year—and a specific plan to accomplish it.

A girl said, "I'm flunking English. I want to get a better grade." I said, "What grade?" She decided a C. Number one on her plan was to spend less time watching television and more time on English homework.

Some strove for material things. One wanted a car; another, a new pair of skis. These goals led to a discussion of whether a person is wiser to want *to be* more or *to have* more. The students recognized that some people go through life only wanting *to have* more—bigger houses, nicer cars, newer coats. Others want *to be* more—better athletes, better scientists, better nurses.

During the last class period, the students were asked, "Have you done anything differently since you have taken this course? Do you think about yourself differently?"

Some student comments follow:

- "I wasn't doing too well in my science class. I thought I was too dumb. But now I realize I can do the work and that I matter as a person."
- "I've gotten a little more of a keep-trying spirit. I wasn't doing well with my math homework, but since this class I've learned to work more and to watch TV less."
- "I've learned to accept my mother a little more, and I'm not goofing off as much as I used to."

At separate meetings with parents and faculty, I presented the basic idea of my motivational program and gave a motivational talk.

I told them that after I had addressed the Indiana State Teachers Association several years ago, a teacher asked me what kind of teachers students like best. I had answered quickly, "A teacher who helps them *be* more than they thought they could be, who believes in them, who gives them confidence." Since that time, I have thought about that question a great deal, and my answer would still be the same today.

Flip Wilson has said, "I'll never forget one of my teachers. I was always more than a half grade behind because I had been kicked around so much. But she told me I was a bright boy, and she put me at the front of the class with the kids my own age. I did everything to prove to her that I was bright, and I stayed at the head of the class."

When I was a senior at East Denver High School, my speech teacher, Genevieve Kreiner, asked me to give the commencement address. I said, "Mrs. Kreiner, I couldn't possibly do it. I'll forget what I have to say."

She replied, "You can and you will. You'll know your speech and you won't forget it."

It's been years since I graduated, but I'm going to my grave remembering my commencement address. I was proud of myself that night and so was my family, but I did not thank my teacher. I didn't want to be apple-polishing.

Students are not saying thank you to teachers; neither are parents. In the absence of applause, thanks, and warm smiles, too many teachers never realize the positive effect they are having on students.

For example, as I was leaving one of the schools in Arizona where I taught my mini-course, a man walked past me wearing a sweatshirt, khaki pants, and sneakers. "Are you the baseball coach?" I asked.

"Yes," he replied.

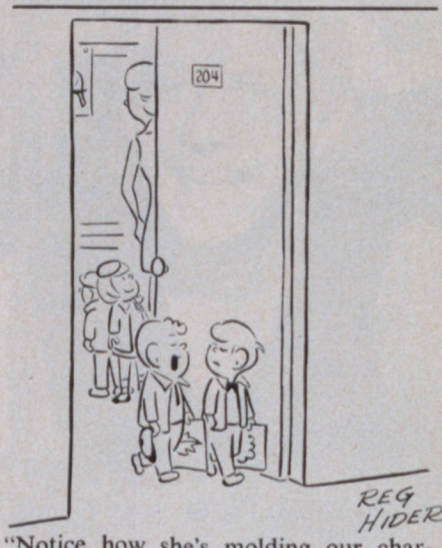
"Oh, I'm so glad I met you. Many of the students in my motivation classes said you were their favorite teacher. One boy said, 'I want to grow up to be just like the coach.' "

The coach responded, "I want to tell you something. I was just about ready to throw in the towel. Some of the guys I went to school with are earning $50,000 and $60,000 a year, and I'm earning $12,000. I needed to hear what you have just told me."

Don't all teachers need to hear positive statements about their efforts?

The greatest need in education today is motivation. Every school in this country needs motivational mini-courses, motivational faculty meetings, motivational PTA meetings. To reach every teacher, to reach every student, to reach every parent, isn't that our goal? □

The author lives in Denver. She spoke at greater length on this topic at the 1974 convention of the National Association of Secondary School Principals.



"Notice how she's molding our character."

The Free School Movement —a Perspective

By LAWRENCE A. CREMIN
Newly Appointed President, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

About a decade ago, I published a study of the progressive education movement of John Dewey's time. I am often asked, Is there any relation between that movement and the free school movement today? Is there anything to be learned from a comparison? And if so, what? My answer is that we can learn a great deal.

In my study of the progressive education movement, titled *The Transformation of the School,* I put forward a number of arguments:

First, that the movement was not an isolated phenomenon in American life, not the invention of a few crackpots and eccentrics, but rather the educational side of the broader progressive movement in American politics and social thought.

Second, that the movement began in protest against the narrowness, the formalism, and the inequities of the late nineteenth century public school.

Third, that as the movement shifted from protest to reform, it cast the school in a new mold, viewing it as (a) a lever of continuing social improvement, (b) an instrument of individual self-realization, (c) an agency for the popularization of culture, and (d) an institution for facilitating the adjustment of human beings to a society undergoing rapid transformation by the forces of democracy, science, and industrialism.

Fourth, that the movement was exceedingly diverse, enrolling men and women as different as Theodore Roosevelt, Jane Addams, Booker T. Washington, and Samuel Gompers, but that one could discern at least three major thrusts: a child-centered thrust, which peaked in the 1920's; a social-reform thrust, which peaked in the 1930's; and a scientific thrust, which peaked in the 1940's.

Fifth, that John Dewey saw the movement whole and served as the chief articulator of its aspirations—recall his little book, *The School and Society* (1899), in which the first essay reflected the social-reform thrust; the second essay, the child-centered thrust; and the third, the scientific thrust.

Sixth, that the movement enjoyed its heyday during the 1920's and 1930's, began to decline during the 1940's, and collapsed during the 1950's for all the usual reasons—internal factionalism, the erosion of political support, the rise of an articulate opposition associated with post-World War II conservatism, and the sort of ideological inflexibility that made it unable to contend with its own success.

In the original plan of my study, I included a final section addressed to the question, "Where do we go from here?" But when the time came to write it, my thoughts were not clear, so I decided to end on a "phoenix in the ashes" note: if and when liberalism in politics and public affairs had a resurgence, progressive education would rise again.

Now, I did manage to work out that last section in 1965. I had a

Is there any relationship between the present-day free school movement and the progressive education movement?

chance to give it initially as the Horace Mann Lecture at the University of Pittsburgh and then published it in a little book called *The Genius of American Education.* I argued there that the reason progressive education had collapsed was that the progressives had missed the central point of the American educational experience in the twentieth century, namely, that an educational revolution had been going on outside the schools far more fundamental than any changes that had taken place inside—the revolution implicit in the rise of cinema, radio, and television and the simultaneous transformation of the American family under the conditions of industrialism and urbanization. The progressives had bet on the school as the crucial lever of social reform and individual self-realization at precisely the time when the whole configuration of educational power was shifting radically. And what was desperately needed, it seemed to me, was some new formulation that put the humane aspirations and social awareness of the progressive education movement together with a more realistic understanding of the fundamentally different situation in which all education was proceeding.

By the time I wrote *The Genius of American Education,* a new progressive education movement was already in the making. I would date its beginning from precisely the time I was wrestling with that last section of *The Transformation of the School* which I found I could not write. I would date it from the publication of A. S. Neill's *Summerhill* in 1960. (Incidentally, nothing in Neill's book was new; most of what he recommended had been tried in the progressive schools of the 1920's and 1930's.)

The new movement began slowly, with the organization of Summerhill societies and Summerhill schools in different parts of the country. It gathered momentum during the middle 1960's, fueled by the writings of John Holt, Herbert Kohl, George Dennison, James Herndon, and Jonathan Kozol. And it manifested itself in the appearance of scores of new child-centered schools of every conceivable sort and variety.

Simultaneously, growing out of the civil rights movement, there arose the political programs of black and ethnic self-determination and the so-called community free schools associated with them—Harlem Prep in New York, the CAM Academy in Chicago, and the Nairobi Community School in East Palo Alto.

By the summer of 1971, Allen Graubard (whose book, *Free the Children,* is one of the more recent efforts to state the history and theory of the movement) was able to identify some 350 such schools. And these are what Graubard calls "outside-the-system" schools, so that we must add many more schools, schools within schools, and classrooms within schools that are part of the public school system and variously referred to as alternative schools or community schools or open schools. [See pages 63-66]

Also, during the last five or six years, we have seen a fascinating interweaving of the child-centered and political-reform themes in the literature of the movement, so that open education is viewed as a lever of child liberation on the one hand and as a lever of radical social change on the other.

At least two of the three themes of the first movement, then, the child-centered theme and the social-reform theme, have emerged full-blown in the present-day movement. Interestingly enough, however, the scientific theme of the first movement has been noticeably absent from the present version. In fact, there has been an active hostility on the part of many free school advocates toward present-day efforts to apply scientific principles to the techniques of instruction and evaluation. Whereas the progressive education movement reached a kind of culmination in The Eight-Year Study in which Ralph Tyler and his associates tried systematically to assess the outcomes of progressive methods, latter-day advocates of free schools have seemed on the whole uninterested in such assessment.

Interestingly, too, the radical side of the current movement has been much more sweeping in its radicalism than was earlier the case, culminating, I would suppose, in Ivan Illich's proposal that we deschool society completely. There were radicals in the 1890's who were fairly skeptical about educational roads to reform—one of them once told Jane Addams that using education to correct social injustice was about as effective as using rosewater to cure the plague. But I have yet to find a radical at that time who wanted to do away with schools entirely; it was rather the reactionaries of the 1890's who sought that.

What is most striking, perhaps, in any comparison of the two movements is the notoriously atheoretical, ahistorical character of the free school movement in our time. The present movement has been far less profound in the ques-

tions it has raised about the nature and character of education and in the debates it has pursued around those questions. The movement has produced no John Dewey, no Boyd Bode, no George Counts, no journal even approaching the quality of the old *Social Frontier*. And it has been far less willing to look to history for ideas. Those who have founded free schools have not read their Francis W. Parker or their Caroline Pratt or their Helen Parkhurst, with the result that boundless energy has been spent in countless classrooms reinventing the pedagogical wheel.

Further, the movement has had immense difficulty going from protest to reform, to the kinds of detailed alternative strategies that will give us better educational programs than we now have. Even Jonathan Kozol's *Free Schools*, which was written explicitly to help people found alternative institutions, is egregiously thin in its programmatic suggestions; while Joseph Turner's *Making New Schools*, which pointedly proffered a rather well-developed reformist curriculum, has not even been noticed by the movement.

Finally, the current movement has remained as school-bound as the progressive education movement of an earlier time. Even Charles Silberman's *Crisis in the Classroom*, surely the most learned and wide-ranging analysis to be associated with the present movement (though it did not emanate from the present movement), begins with a lengthy discussion of how television writers, filmmakers, priests, rabbis, librarians, and museum directors all educate, but it then goes on to propose the open classroom as the keystone in the arch of educational reform.

Ironically, the one book to come out of the movement that appears to have comprehended the educational revolution of our time is Ivan Illich's *Deschooling Society*. But the appearance is deceptive. Illich would like to abandon schooling in favor of what he calls educational networks, but he does not deal with the inevitable impact of the media and the market on those networks.

It is easy enough to criticize, and my remarks should not be taken as a defense of the educational status quo. At the very least, the advocates of free schools have cared enough about human beings to try to make education more humane and that is to be prized. Where they have failed, it seems to me, is at the point of theory; they have not asked the right questions insistently enough, and as a result they have tended to come up with superficial and shopworn answers.

Let me then put my question once again: What would an educational movement look like today that combined the humane aspirations and social awareness of the progressive education movement with a more realistic understanding of the nature of present-day education? What if free schools (and all other schools for that matter) were to take seriously the radically new situation in which all education inescapably proceeds? What would they do differently?

Let me venture three suggestions:

First, classroom teachers have to begin to contend with the fact that youngsters in the schools have been taught and are being taught by many curriculums and that if they want to influence those youngsters they must be aware of those curriculums. The Children's Television Workshop has a curriculum. The *Encyclopaedia Britannica* has a curriculum. The Boy Scouts and the Girl Scouts have curriculums. Our churches and synagogues have curriculums. And each family has a curriculum, though in many instances that curriculum may do little more than leave youngsters to the fortunes of the other educators.

To understand this is to force educators to change fundamentally the way they think about education. It means, as James Coleman and Christopher Jencks—and one should probably add Plato—have pointed out, that the school never has *tabulae rasae* to begin with, that when children come to school they have already been educated and miseducated on the outside, and that the best the school can do in many realms is to complement, extend, accentuate, challenge, neutralize, or counter (though in so doing the school does crucially important work). It means that one of the most significant tasks any school can undertake is to try to develop in youngsters an awareness of these other curriculums and an ability to criticize them. Young people desperately need the intellectual tools to deal critically with the values of a film like *Clockwork Orange* or with the human models in a television serial like *Marcus Welby, M.D.* or with the aesthetic qualities of the music of Lawrence Welk. None of this can substitute for reading, writing, and arithmetic to be sure; but reading, writing, and arithmetic are no longer enough.

Incidentally, if one accepts this line of argument, it is utter nonsense to think that by turning children loose in an unplanned and unstructured environment they can be freed in any significant way. Rather, they are thereby abandoned to the blind forces of the hucksters, whose primary concern is neither the children, nor the truth, nor the decent future of American society.

Second, once educators took seriously the fact that we are all taught by radio and television, peer groups and advertising agencies, libraries and museums, they would necessarily become interested not only in alternative

Boundless energy has been spent in countless classrooms reinventing the pedagogical wheel

schools but in alternative education of every kind. It may well be, for example, that the most important educational battle now being fought in the United States is over who will control cable television, who will award the franchises, and what will be the public requirements associated with a franchise. Once 40 to 50 channels are readily available to every American home —some of them with the capacity for responsive interchange—then what comes over those channels in the form of education or miseducation will profoundly affect *all* teaching in schools and everywhere else. There is simply no avoiding this and educators had best face it.

Further, if educators were to take seriously what Urie Bronfenbrenner has been saying about the extraordinary power of the adolescent peer group in American society and the need for a greater variety of adult models in the life of every child, they would press for a host of innovations, both inside the school and out. They would be more interested than they seem, for example, in peer-mediated instruction or in summer camps or in arrangements under which children spend time in factories, businesses, offices, or shops, with real adults doing real work, along the lines of the experiment Bronfenbrenner carried out with David Goslin at the *Detroit Free Press*.

Third, once educators took seriously the fact that we are living through a revolution in which opportunities for education and miseducation are burgeoning throughout the society, they would give far more attention to the need to equip each youngster as early as possible to make his way purposefully and intelligently through the various configurations of education, with a view to the kind of person he would like to become and the relation of education to becoming that kind of person. In others words, they would do all they could to nurture an educationally autonomous individual.

In conclusion, I should note that as critical as I have been of the progressive education movement of yesterday and the free school movement of today, I find myself much more in sympathy with the authentic aspirations of both movements—at least as articulated by Dewey—than I am opposed to them. In the last analysis, my critique is simply an effort to call the free school movement to the service of its own best ideals, and it can only learn what those ideals are by studying its own history.

Dr. Cremin presented this paper at the Institute of Philosophy and Politics of Education at Teachers College, Columbia University. It is reprinted from the October 1973 issue of *Notes on Education*, published by the Institute.

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"This paper, 'Identity Crisis,' with the poor grade—are you sure it's mine?"

How To Cut Discipline Problems in Half

By JEAN DUNAWAY
Sixth-Grade Teacher, Manor Lakes Elementary School, Memphis.

Joe Mapes, education librarian, University of Colorado Libraries, Boulder, sent us the article below, which appeared in the December 1973 Tennessee Teacher. *"I was impressed with this article and want to call it to your attention," said Mr. Mapes. We, too, were impressed and obtained permission from the* Tennessee Teacher *to reprint it. We then solicited the reactions of some educators who are involved with pupils beyond the elementary school level. Their comments follow Mrs. Dunaway's article.*

I love my profession; I enjoy children. I'm happy in my school. I haven't lost my mind; I've found a method that works for me that helps both the children and me enjoy school. I know it's not the answer for everyone, but it has cut discipline problems in my class by more than half. It makes a classroom a fertile place for learning.

I've always worked with children. In high school I taught Sunday School and summer craft classes; I substituted at each base where my husband was stationed (before I went back to college). And after certification, I taught first grade in Florida; then fourth —and now sixth—in Memphis. Plus, I have two children of my own. I'm not a self-proclaimed expert; I just like children.

I'm a happy teacher, and I'd like to share this feeling.

Now that I have your attention, let me clear up some doubts that instantly came to mind when I reread the title. I do not have a class of ten in a nice quiet private school. I have thirty children, 80 percent black, in a public school. I do not rope, gag, or lock any of my children in closets. In fact, I haven't even sent one to the principal's office this year. And I'm not a veteran of twenty years' experience. I'm one of those young, low-seniority teachers who finds herself in a new school and new grade every year.

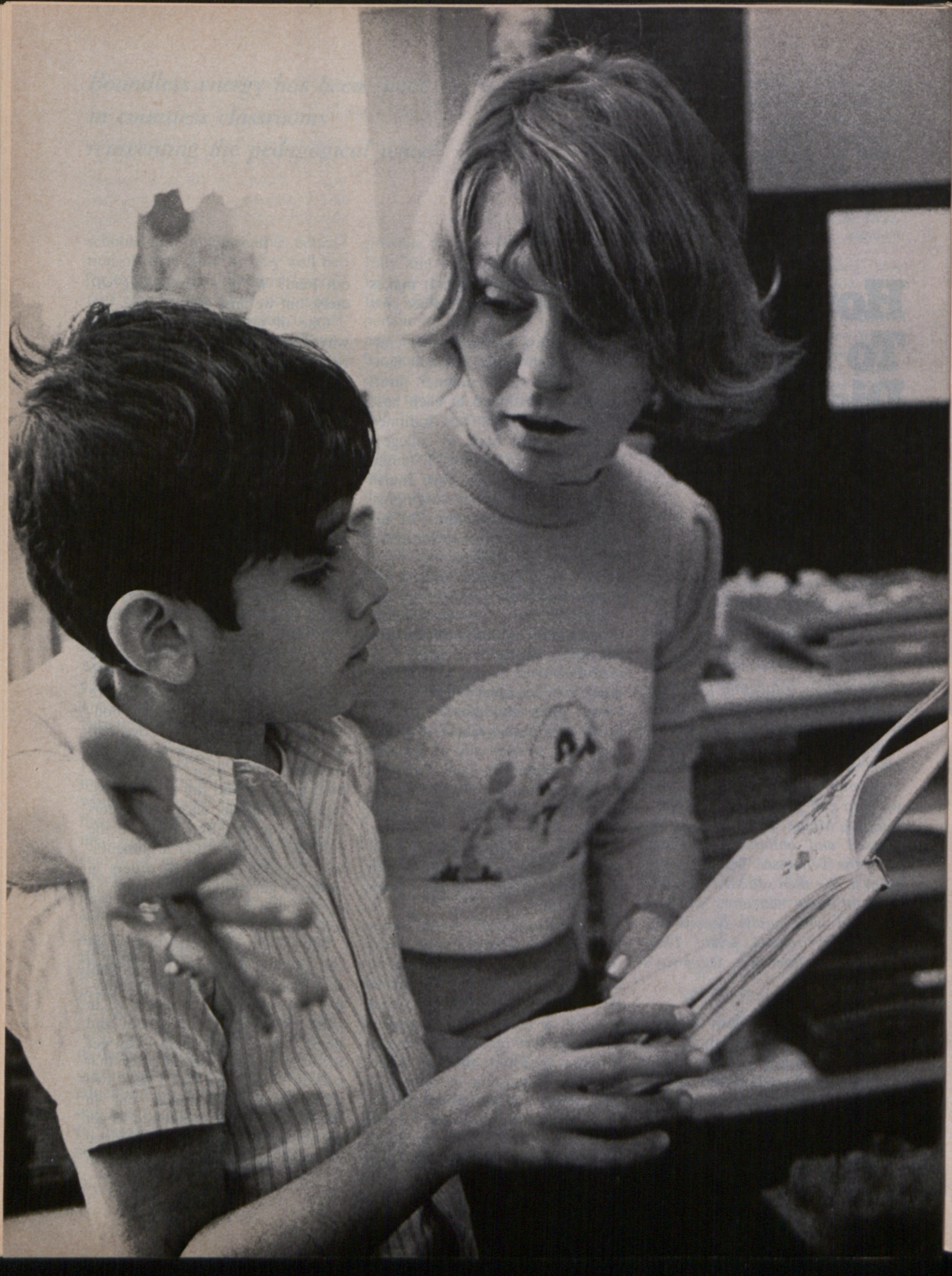
I discovered the "secret" when I taught first grade. I used to let the children know I liked them by a revolutionary means—I touched them. So simple, but that is saying a lot in a society that is trained not to touch or reach out to another in any way. Think about it. Where do people stand in elevators? In the corners! What about in the lines of a bank or a store? Don't lean, don't touch. Do we cry where anyone might see? Do we laugh out loud? We're a very polite society, but we miss a lot of joy.

One of my first graders asked why I walked with them to the rest rooms, outside, and to the library.

"Because I love you and don't want you lost or hurt," I said. I shocked that child, but I had said the magic word. I wonder how many of his teachers will say they love him. I hugged a lot that year too. In fact, a colleague asked how I could stand having those little fellows hugging my knees, standing on my toes, and following me around all day. To me, it was one more little reward of teaching children.

As I moved to fourth grade and then to sixth, I had to revise my methods. These children were sensitive about their feelings, bodies, and peer approval. Love can be an embarrassing word. So, at the start of the year, I stayed behind my desk and ran a fairly routine sixth grade class. By afternoon, I was usually cross, and the children were hot and argumentative. I ended up yelling orders in order to get my space (I teach in open space this year) together before the final bell.

So, several weeks ago, I brought out the old artillery. I explained that since I have to drive thirty-five miles each way, every day, in peak traffic to get to school and back, I need all the help I can get in order to be civilized after that ordeal. I explained that I need two things each day: smiles—one in the morning from each child to get me started and one before dismissal to carry home with me. At first



they were wary. I went around to each child to collect my smile. If I found a grump, I hugged a smile out. Some children just broke out in grins when they saw me coming. It was such a joy to see that smile be carried into social studies, or science, or spelling. And in the afternoon, I couldn't help smiling myself as those smiles walked down the hall and out the door.

Now there's no embarrassment or stiffness or yelling (well, not too much) or threatening. We're all still tired in the afternoon; but now, if things get out of hand, I simply go to the child, put my arm around him, and smile.

This won't work for everyone. I don't recommend it for a fiercely angry or resentful child. If you touch then, it's too easy to be pushed away and that could lead to a "touchy" situation of another sort. But just think for a minute: When was the last time a child in your room got the feeling someone in those big gray walls loved him? Isn't that what working with children is really about . . . love? □

REACTIONS TO DUNAWAY

Touching is probably an effective way to communicate affection to elementary students. The touching, however, need not be done in the literal sense. It seems to me that even at the primary level, pupils can be touched emotionally with kind words, sincerity, helpfulness, and affability. At the secondary school level, prudence would dictate that teachers confine themselves almost exclusively to this kind of touching.

In our society, most people are acutely aware of touching. A touch is not casually given or received. Teenagers are particularly likely to misinterpret even the most casual touch. Therefore, male secondary teachers are probably well-advised to confine any physical contact to male students—and that only in terms of a light pat on the back or a "ya big lug" punch on the arm.

—Robert C. Longe, *English chairman, Southfield-Lathrup High School, Lathrup Village, Michigan.*

Based on my experience in teaching both normal children and those who are mentally retarded or emotionally disturbed, I would concur that the simple method of touching is an effective one. All in a message without words, it can say, "How are things?" "Can I help?" "I'm interested in what you're doing," or "Let's get back to work."

As Ms. Dunaway states, the same techniques used with younger children can also be effective with older ones. However, if the teacher isn't well-liked, respected, and sincere, his or her bid for smiles might make some children cringe with embarrassment and others ridicule those who smiled in return.

—Teressa Marjorie Pratt, *education consultant, specific learning disabilities, Waterloo, Iowa.*

One of the individual's strongest needs is to be loved. I agree with the underlying basis of Jean Dunaway's philosophy that successful teachers "love" their students and communicate their love both verbally and nonverbally. This approach helps prevent discipline problems by eliminating a student's need for attention-getting behavior.

Teacher use of nonverbal communication to fulfill a student's need is a legitimate educational endeavor. However, teacher use of such communication to manipulate a student is a violation of teacher-student relationships. Teachers who develop skill in using a nonverbal approach to meet student needs may be tempted to use the same skill to modify student behavior.

As teachers and students increase skills in communicating nonverbally, there is a danger that a teacher may disrupt a student's emotional stability by creating conflict between a student's conscious and subconscious mind.

Training teachers to make proper use of the Dunaway approach would be a major step in making schools more humane places for students.

—James Fugate, *guidance counselor, Wedgewood Junior High School, Columbus, Ohio.*

LOVE—NOT ENOUGH

Self-destruction derives from hate, and Freud said that love can overcome hate. My wife and I tried to elaborate this principle in our book, *Love Against Hate,* to offset the pessimism of my book, *Man Against Himself.* Our thesis was that love for other people comes to the aid of one's self-hate and bitterness and tends to neutralize this conflict. A special chapter in this book dealt with teaching as an expression of love and as a method of disseminating the antidote to hate.

But sometimes love is not enough. Faith, hope, and love—love is the greatest of the three, St. Paul said. As for faith, it has been falling into some disfavor lately, and some even say that "God is dead." We have gained so much knowledge that we think we do not have to depend much on anything or anyone else. Leaning too much on faith, say some, tends to favor the great cop-out: viz., the world is going to hell, but what can I do about it? It's not my fault. You can't prove I'm guilty.

Some of us reject this discarding of faith, which is a trend that alarms many.

And there is still hope. But hope has long been considered by many to be actually an evil itself instead of a remedy. And yet hope springs eternal. St. Paul has the courage to put poor wretched hope alongside love as a saving grace in the maintenance of life. I follow St. Paul in this. Although it is neglected and disparaged by many, I believe it is a bulwark of effective mental health.

We need love, we need faith, and we need hope. They form a triad upon which mental health and hygiene (preventive and prophylactic regimens) depend.

—Karl Menninger, M.D., *distinguished psychiatrist, speaking at the 1974 NEA Convention.*

Teachers' Instructional Problems, 1974

What problems keep teachers from teaching more effectively? To probe this question, NEA asked a nationwide sample of teachers for their views on the 25 items below. We invite you to respond to the items and then see how teachers across the nation responded. Remember, however, problems

Part 1 - INSTRUCTIONAL PROBLEMS

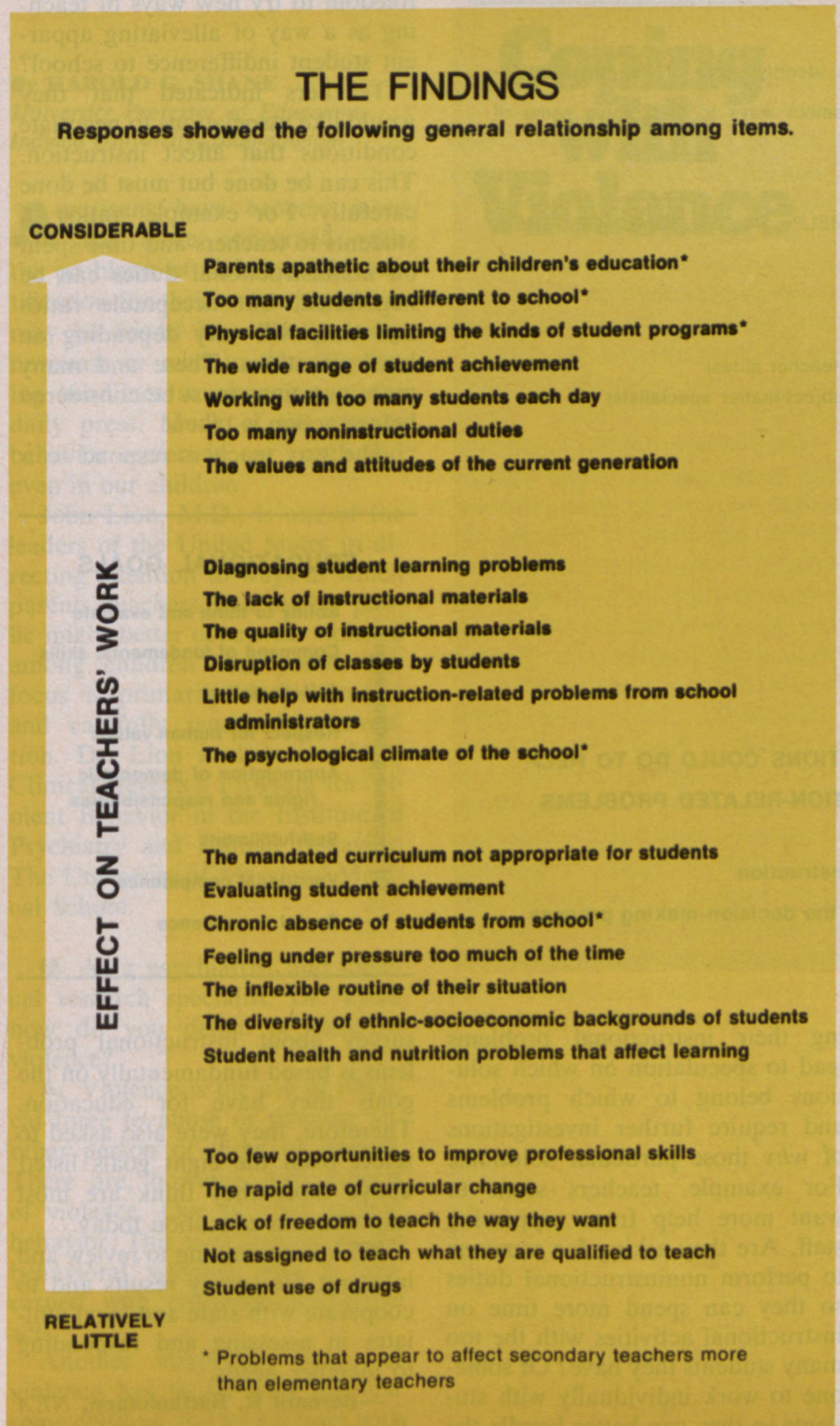
Each of the following items is a problem to some teachers in some schools. Check each to the degree it is a problem to you in your current assignment.

1. Negligible problem—has **little or no effect** on my work
2. Moderate problem—has **only limited effect** on my work
3. Serious problem—has **considerable effect** on my work
4. Critical problem—has **crucial effect** on my work—a crisis!

	Negligible	Moderate	Serious	Critical
1. My teaching is limited by the quality of instructional materials	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
2. My teaching is restricted by the lack of instructional materials	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
3. The mandated curriculum is not appropriate for my students	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
4. My students are chronically absent from school	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
5. I work with too many students each day	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
6. The range of achievement of my students is too great	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
7. The diversity of ethnic-socioeconomic backgrounds of my students is too great	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
8. I have to spend too much time on noninstructional duties	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
9. Student use of drugs counters my best teaching efforts	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
10. Health and nutrition problems affect the learning of my students	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
11. The values and attitudes of the current generation make it difficult to teach	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
12. Too many of my students are indifferent to school	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
13. Disruption of my class(es) by students is a continuing frustration	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
14. It is difficult to diagnose student learning problems	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
15. It is difficult to evaluate student achievement	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
16. I feel frustrated by the inflexible routine of my situation	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
17. Lack of freedom to teach the way I want makes me less effective with my students	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
18. I feel under pressure too much of the time	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
19. The psychological climate of the school is not conducive to learning	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
20. I feel frustrated by the rapid rate of curricular change	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
21. The physical facilities of the school limit the kinds of programs provided for students	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
22. I am not assigned to teach what I am best qualified to teach	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
23. I have too few opportunities to improve my professional skills	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
24. I get little help with my instruction-related problems from the administrators of this school	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐
25. Too many parents are apathetic about their children's education	1☐	2☐	3☐	4☐

THE FINDINGS

Responses showed the following general relationship among items.


CONSIDERABLE
EFFECT ON TEACHERS' WORK
RELATIVELY LITTLE
Parents apathetic about their children's education*
Too many students indifferent to school*
Physical facilities limiting the kinds of student programs*
The wide range of student achievement
Working with too many students each day
Too many noninstructional duties
The values and attitudes of the current generation
Diagnosing student learning problems
The lack of instructional materials
The quality of instructional materials
Disruption of classes by students
Little help with instruction-related problems from school administrators
The psychological climate of the school*
The mandated curriculum not appropriate for students
Evaluating student achievement
Chronic absence of students from school*
Feeling under pressure too much of the time
The inflexible routine of their situation
The diversity of ethnic-socioeconomic backgrounds of students
Student health and nutrition problems that affect learning
Too few opportunities to improve professional skills
The rapid rate of curricular change
Lack of freedom to teach the way they want
Not assigned to teach what they are qualified to teach
Student use of drugs

* Problems that appear to affect secondary teachers more than elementary teachers

that are recognized nationally may not reflect your local situation.

To gain the greatest benefit from this survey, it is important to think about why teachers responded as they did. Consider, for example, the top group of items on the left and ask why teachers find "too many students indifferent to school" a considerable problem. Perhaps they are reflecting an indifference in today's society or the irrelevance of the curricular program. On the other hand, if you also consider two other top problems—"working with too many students each day" and "the wide range of student achievement"—you may come to other conclusions. If the reader looks only at individual items and does not attempt to interrelate them, there are dangers of misinterpretation.

This survey, then, was not intended to give final answers, but rather to provide clues for further probing of recognized problems in schools. Although responses to individual items are important, problems usually do not occur in isolation and are best considered as clusters of related concerns. The top group of problems, for example, raises questions about the work load of teachers and attitudes about education and students. A more comprehensive picture emerges when those problems are looked at collectively as well as individually.

At the other end of the spectrum are problems that teachers say have relatively little effect on their work. Nevertheless, these items should not be dismissed lightly. For example, most teachers saw "not assigned to teach what they are qualified to teach" as a

MORE FINDINGS

In addition to teachers' being asked to identify some of their instruction-related problems, they were asked to select ways to help solve some of those problems.

WHAT TEACHERS THINK COULD HELP SOLVE SOME OF THEIR INSTRUCTION-RELATED PROBLEMS.

More HELP from:

Noncertified staff (e.g., clerical staff, teacher aides)
Specialized staff (e.g., counselors, subject-matter specialists)

More TIME to:

Plan daily instructional activities
Work with students

More FREEDOM to:

Adjust student groupings
Try new ways of teaching
Select curriculum materials

WHAT TEACHERS THINK ASSOCIATIONS COULD DO TO HELP SOLVE SOME OF THEIR INSTRUCTION-RELATED PROBLEMS

Negotiate conditions that affect instruction

Assure teacher representation in the decision-making process

negligible problem. For those teachers who are misassigned, however, the problem may well be considerable. Or consider "student use of drugs." Where it is a problem, the effects can be devastating.

In other words, problems often have different meanings in different localities and for different groups of teachers. It would be interesting to see how the items in this instrument cluster as problems in your building or district.

Ways teachers selected for solving their instructional problems lead to speculation on which solutions belong to which problems and require further investigations of *why* those particular solutions. For example, teachers seem to want more help from supporting staff. Are they asking for someone to perform noninstructional duties so they can spend more time on instructional activities with the too many students they have? Or someone to work individually with students so they can better handle the wide range of student achievement? Or both? Are they asking for more freedom to try new ways of teaching as a way of alleviating apparent student indifference to school?

Teachers indicated that they would like associations to negotiate conditions that affect instruction. This can be done but must be done carefully. For example, ratios of students to teachers and time spent on noninstructional duties can be negotiated, but acceptable ratios and time will vary depending on local situations. These and many more questions must be considered before action is taken.

The way teachers respond to a survey about instructional problems is based fundamentally on the goals they have for education. Therefore, they were also asked to select from the eight goals listed above those they think are most important in education today.

NEA is continuing to review and interpret the survey results and to cooperate with state and local affiliates in assessing and responding to member needs.

—Bernard R. Bartholomew, *NEA Research.*

EDUCATIONAL GOALS

Of increasing importance

Ability to think and evaluate
Command of fundamental skills
Self-discipline
Respect for human values
Appreciation of democratic rights and responsibilities
Self-fulfillment
Vocational competence
Social competence

AN INTERVIEW WITH JOHN R. LION

Coping with Violence

By HAROLD G. SHANE
University Professor of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington.

Americans have become more and more concerned with the problems of violence. The justification for their mounting alarm may be found in virtually every newscast or read in the disquieting headlines so abundant in the daily press. Much of the violent behavior centers in our youth and even in our children.

John Lion, M.D., is one of the leaders of the United States in directing attention to ways in which parents, teachers, and the lay public might better cope with violence among children and youth. His focus is primarily on prevention and carefully reasoned intervention. Dr. Lion is director of the Clinical Research Program for Violent Behavior in the Institute of Psychiatry and Human Behavior, The University of Maryland Medical School.

Q. As a psychiatrist and medical research specialist, Dr. Lion, how do you define or describe violence?

A. Violence is the use of physical force to abuse or damage another person or thing or oneself. There are, however, two aspects of violence. One is overt violent behavior. This is of interest to the behavioral scientist who is concerned with reducing destructive acts.

Another important aspect of violence has to do with the fear some children and adults have with regard to their violent thoughts and fantasies. A number of persons are afraid of becoming violent and are preoccupied with violent thoughts and fantasies. They haven't been violent yet, but they're afraid they may be. It's important to recognize such people, adults and youth, and to consider them when we seek to reduce violent behavior through intervention processes.

Q. Dr. Lion, is violence, as you define it, increasing in the United States? If it is, can you cite some of the data or trends that merit thoughtful, mature concern on the part of the teacher and the general public?

A. The question of whether violence is increasing is a difficult one to answer with any precision, although if we are to believe the FBI statistics, it definitely is. Certainly, our coverage of and our awareness of violence have been greatly increased by the news media, which give instantaneous and widespread coverage to incidents of violence. You must remember, though, that there have been extremely violent periods in the history of civilization, such as in the Middle Ages, during the Crusades, or in our own Civil War. In short, I'm not sure whether the actual total number of violent incidents is increasing, decreasing, or more or less stable.

Q. In your writings, you indicate that *early* identification and *early* intervention strategies are highly important in coping with violence. Would you please expand on this point by indicating how early we may expect signs or symptoms of violence in child-

No specific constellation of signs or symptoms exists that enables a teacher or even a psychiatrist to identify a child as potentially violent.

hood. And what do you mean by "intervention strategies"?

A. As I said in a paper presented at the American Orthopsychiatric Association meeting earlier this year, the methods used for "crisis intervention" in dealing with violence among youth theoretically involve at least five steps.

The first one is to help the child or youth gain insight into the nature of his crisis. The second is to help him expose present but often hidden feelings—a process which reduces the tensions that can lead to violence. The third is to explore with the young person the uniquely personal ways in which he or she can begin to cope with the feelings that make one prone to violence. The fourth is to help the youngster readjust to the social world—a milieu from which crisis behavior resulted because of a change in personal relationships or life-style. The fifth phase involves positive, anticipatory planning of a better future.

Q. How can teachers intervene in the case of a violent youth? Is it simply a process of being understanding? Should a teacher try to identify "violence-prone" individuals?

A. Teachers should endeavor to work within the limits of their own resources; however, naive intervention by the well-meaning but untrained can be risky—even dangerous to the teacher and to the student. As a psychiatrist, I think it requires the greatest humility to intervene in a child's life—particularly when we're dealing with the identification of violence.

For example, a few months ago tests were administered to schoolchildren in Baltimore to pick up potential delinquent traits. The program was called off before any results were made known. But this kind of venture has dangerous implications because it could lead to the identification of "false positives" and thus stigmatize children by labeling them delinquent or violence-prone when in fact they may not be.

The whole problem of intervention in the case of violence-prone people requires a great deal of careful reflection in view of the political overtones inherent in a process of suppressing violence for the "good" of an individual. Indeed, some violence is desirable for social and cultural change.

Q. Despite these qualifying statements, I think that readers of *Today's Education*—teachers who often are on the firing line in the classroom—would like to hear you speak further about intervention.

A. Very well. Let me say that school personnel will know of children and adolescents who have violent tendencies—youngsters who repeatedly are involved in temper outbursts and assaultive episodes. These people require some traditional forms of treatment. Except in extreme cases, however, treatment should be voluntary. When the behavior becomes intolerable and seriously infringes upon other people's rights or safety, then perhaps the treatment should be mandatory and perhaps coercive. This is for the courts to decide.

Q. I hear you saying that behavior modification or control is necessary with some violence-prone children and youth but that problems and potential dangers may be involved. Can you offer any specific suggestions to classroom workers?

A. No specific constellation of signs or symptoms exists that enables a teacher or even a psychiatrist or a clinician to identify a child as potentially violent. Before a psychiatrist (let alone a teacher or counselor) is able to make a valid judgment about whether a child is dangerous, he or she requires, among other things, a complete family history and a well-thought-out and carefully planned interview. Just because a child may have a fire-setting propensity or may display cruelty to animals doesn't necessarily mean he or she is going to turn out to be dangerously violent. The state of the art in detecting previolent tendencies certainly is no further evolved with respect to children than it is regarding adults.

At the same time, let me add that if a child is involved in repetitive violent assaults on other children, and if these attacks are serious, a teacher is most unwise if he or she does not seek to refer the child to a specialist for study. The issue is not in identification of the problem, but in determining when it is essential to seek intervention.

Q. Dr. Lion, do you identify the incidence of violence with social class; that is, with the "culture of poverty"? Do you feel that violent behavior among children and youth correlates with socioeconomic status?

A. Our prisons, of course, are filled with persons who come from lower socioeconomic backgrounds. Whether violent behavior correlates with lower socioeconomic status is another question entirely. Obviously, people from middle and higher socioeconomic status can be violent but—as in the case of alcoholism—one is not likely to find the well-to-do hauled into the local police station.

However, criminologists recognize so-called subcultures of violence which appear to correlate with low socioeconomic status.

Q. What do you identify as some of the causes of violent behavior? Are there specific organic or genetic causations?

A. Well, a good deal has been written and said of late about organic aspects of violence. I refer to such factors as brain dysfunction, psychomotor seizures, chromosomal abnormalities, and the like. The organic aspects of violence are something I am particularly interested in. However, I think that a very small proportion of violent individuals have an organic brain dysfunction that can be causally related to outbursts of violence. For example, I saw a woman recently who had a seizure disorder and who also was a child abuser. I don't think the two things were related, however. I think she had two processes going on: a psychological process whereby she became angry and assaulted her child and a form of epileptic seizure that was unrelated to her display of violence.

Q. I also asked you whether violent behavior could be inherited.

A. With regard to the genetic situation, I don't think any correlation has been shown between chromosomal abnormalities and violent behavior. It would be tempting and easy to look upon chromosomes and brain dysfunction as the answer to violence. It would be convenient for doctors if all violent children or youth had brain dysfunctions because then we could blame it all on abnormal brains. This is too simple an answer. Acceptance of brain dysfunction as a cause of violence is a dangerous position to take because it supports arguments for surgical operations as a means to control behavior.

Q. Is there any prospect that new mood-influencing drugs may be used effectively to reduce or eliminate the anger syndrome of violent children and youth?

A. A number of medications have proved to be useful in dealing with violent behavior in children and adolescents. These run the range from the major and minor tranquilizers through lithium, anticonvulsants, and such central nervous system stimulants as the amphetamines and Dexedrine.

First, however, I should like to say that drugs are not the answer to or the cure for violent behavior. I think one has to approach any chemical therapy with great caution and view any kind of pharmacological treatment as ancillary. I am personally a great believer in talking to violent persons, whether they be children, adolescents, or adults. What is traditionally called psychotherapy is my treatment of choice. Drugs do, of course, sometimes help.

Q. Are you reasonably satisfied with the present methods of coping professionally with violence? Is psychiatry making good progress?

A. I regret to say that the treatment of aggression and violence is something which most clinicians have steered away from for a variety of reasons. To be honest, I think that violent patients are frightening to many physicians—just as they probably disturb the composure of most teachers. Antisocial behavior evokes a lot of anxiety in moralistic and conservative clinicians. Indeed, the study of violence and aggression is an area that we have been very reluctant to get into in the United States.

Q. Can you tell our readers more about our national shortcomings in facing the problem of aggression?

A. Well, we scream a lot about all the violence on the street, but once persons are convicted and placed in prison, we do practically nothing about providing any kind of therapy. We observe what are classified as "civil rights" to a point where we can't be as helpful as we might be. That is to say, we cannot force patients into treatment. Perhaps we ought to. I don't know. I'm now talking forthrightly about the problem of treatment and punishment and our social attitude toward rehabilitation. Insofar as violence is concerned, the whole issue of treatment as punishment is something with which our entire society must eventually come to grips.

In certain countries, such as Denmark, treatment is mandatory for certain criminals. They must have treatment, and they are not allowed out until they have been "cured." These are the equivalent of people who in some of our indeterminate sentence facilities are classified as "defective delinquents"—patients who have been judged dangerous to society by virtue of their repeated involvement in violent crime. These facilities have demonstrated reduced recidivism figures, but civil rights groups view these institutions with alarm.

Q. Your comments regarding rehabilitation of adults are provocative, Dr. Lion, but let me pull us back toward childhood and youth. Would you ever classify violent behavior in childhood and adolescence as a sign or a form of mental illness?

A. Violence, irrespective of the age group in which it occurs, is always a *symptom*. Under certain circumstances, it can be a symptom of mental illness. It can also be symptomatic of depression. Violence can be a symptom of ingestion of drugs such as LSD or amphetamines. Under some rare conditions, it is a symptom of a brain tumor. It can even be a "normal" state: Sometimes, for example, children and adolescents act appropriately violent in order to scare their teachers or parents into letting them have their own way. Just as in the case of learning dis-

abilities, Professor Shane, violence and aggression have many causes!

Q. You just spoke of violence as a ploy used to get one's way. Are there ever any circumstances or conditions under which you would consider violence *necessary?*

A. Too often, people assume that psychiatrists want to completely take away the violence from their patients. I certainly don't want to render my patients passive and helpless. The aim in treating the violent is not to abolish their violence but to enable *them* to modulate their own aggressiveness over a period of time and to direct it into constructive channels.

Some aggressiveness has been essential to human survival as our ancestors faced a hostile world of nature. Let me add that there are aggressive people who also are highly creative and have made signal contributions to our civilization. The trick is to contain unwholesome aggression and violence —to use the drive of the individual for *wholesome* purposes.

Q. Since we temporarily have shifted from violence per se to aggression, would you name one or two historically well-known persons who might illustrate the point you are making on aggressiveness?

A. Without naming names, I assume most people presently in high positions in politics, business, and science have used their aggressiveness in order to reach their professional destinies. I can think historically of people like Albert Schweitzer and Eleanor Roosevelt, who were aggressive in pursuit of their beliefs. I can think of aggressive surgeons whose personalities have helped them to perform well. Christiaan Barnard was "aggressive" in doing a human heart transplant.

Q. Would you go so far as to say there sometimes is a relationship between aggressiveness and contribution to humankind?

A. Probably so. And in a sense I think one has to be somewhat aggressive to survive. The newborn babe is in this sense aggressive as he struggles to breathe and to live. One sees the opposite phenomenon in clinical practice where the lack of aggressiveness and assertiveness in the passive and dependent individuals makes them unable to function. Indeed, in these cases therapy is needed to make them more assertive. Again, it is a question of *balance.*

Q. On the other hand, some people would probably say that many of us are already too aggressive and that this is a threat to peace and to world tranquility. How would you respond to persons of that persuasion?

A. I would agree that the present emphasis in American culture on violence is decidedly excessive. I'm not sure that people themselves are more aggressive, but rather that culture places a premium on the merits of aggressiveness. Our movies—indeed, all our media—are full of explicit or implicit aggression.

There has to be something wrong with the current emphasis on the level of aggressiveness in the world. Let me give an example: Recently I heard on TV that if viewers tuned in at 11 o'clock that night they could hear an in-depth report on a brutal murder that had just occurred.

Now, the point is that the media are generating a fascination with violence. I've been in favor for some time of self-imposed restrictions by the media with regard to the news coverage given violent events. The flaunting of terror and crime generates a morbid curiosity, reinforces people's interest in violence, and perpetuates the violence.

Q. Do you think there are sex differences associated with aggression or violence?

A. In this country, 90 percent of all violent crimes are committed by men. This extreme difference is a bit puzzling. It traditionally has been theorized that men are driven by the need to prove their masculinity and hence get into fights and shootings. Women don't have the problem of asserting their sexuality the way men do. At the same time, women are becoming more assertive and aggressive if we measure self-assertiveness by their entry into fields requiring aggressiveness and assertiveness: news media, investment firms, stock exchange, legal professions, medical schools, and so forth.

Q. Do you think that as a result of status changes growing out of the women's liberation movement, there will be an increase in the number of violent acts being committed by women five to 15 years hence?

A. I've seen data suggesting that women have become somewhat more involved in violent crimes than they used to be. Because of women's psycho-cultural makeup, however, I doubt that women will ever become substantially more involved in violent crimes.

Q. Are there any sex differences in the nature of male and female violence?

A. Yes. Whereas men are more involved in such violent crimes as homicide, aggravated assault, armed robbery, and rape, women are more often implicated in cases of child abuse. This also is not so easily explained. Of course, women have more contact with children, and this may make them more prone to conflicts over the issues of child rearing and mothering. I've seen child-battering men, but they are fewer in number.

Q. Let us return to our focus on childhood. Can you identify or describe a methodology for dealing with the violent or potentially violent boy or girl?

A. Earlier in our conversation, I spoke of five intervention strategies. Now let me describe some therapeutic techniques used in

dealing with a violence-prone child or youth.

Violent pupils are angry. They are angry because something has happened which has hurt them—something which they cannot accept. Effective therapy entails getting them to come to grips with their vulnerability and with the things which have hurt them. Eventually, the violence-prone children or youth, in order not to be violent, must learn to cope with and tolerate those things that make them upset.

Then, even if they are quite young, they must verbalize those things to whoever has upset them. That is, they need to engage in a dialogue regarding the hurt which they have sustained. This process requires the help of a therapist or some other mature person who understands the intervention process. It also demands patience, understanding, and ability of the parties concerned to appreciate how the angry children feel and where their sensitivities lie.

Another important psychotherapeutic strategy is to get very aggressive, impulsive individuals—whether they're children, adolescents, or adults—to fantasize. When I say fantasize, I mean anticipate mentally the steps they would take to hurt another person. This may seem like a curious thing, but all of us need what I call a sense of fantasy so that when someone insults us we can fantasize what would happen to us if we made a violent response.

Hopefully, then, the thought or fantasy of what would happen stops us from becoming violent. Impulse-ridden, violent individuals do not naturally have this ability. They act first and think later. One must try to get them to anticipate the consequences of their actions—to go over the consequences again and again until, when they want to hit somebody or hurt somebody, they can restrain themselves.

Q. Intervention therapy, I assume, should be practiced only by the highly skilled, especially qualified psychiatrist or psychologist.

A. Probably. Teachers qualified only by good intentions may worsen some children's problems. It is necessary in most cases for teachers to rely on referral to special personnel.

Q. In a speech you delivered earlier this year, you spoke of effective gun-control legislation as one important means of reducing lethal expressions of rage. Might it be desirable for our schools to develop gun-education programs analogous to contemporary drug education—or do you fail to see a parallel between the two?

A. A parallel does exist, but the overwhelming availability of guns probably negates any kind of effective educative program in our schools. Just as in the case of dangerous and drunken drivers, the issue of gun control is a political issue. Unfortunately, this country operates on a sort of social-catastrophe principle: A number of terrible things have to happen before we enact legislation to correct them. It's obvious to me that what we ought to do is outlaw handguns as a way of reducing violence. Again, this is a political measure.

Q. Are there agencies or organizations analogous to, say, Alcoholics Anonymous, to which parents or school personnel may turn to request advice on coping with a violent child or youth?

A. Not that I know of. As a matter of fact, the violence clinic which we have here at the University of Maryland is virtually unique, although recently the American Psychiatric Association has been alerting psychiatrists and physicians of the need to recognize the problems of violent individuals. As I said before, a teacher or a parent faced with a violent child should seek help from a qualified mental health person, agency, or psychiatrist instead of trying to deal with such a child on their own.

Q. You said earlier that Americans have a "heritage of violence," yet our country is made up of persons coming from all over the world. Do you see any reason why the "human mix" in America has led to this tradition of violence?

A. This country's pride in individual autonomy has been a prime psychological factor. This is a land where people presumably can create their own destinies. As a result, we place a premium on aggressiveness and drive. Profound psychological changes will have to occur in order for us to come to grips with violence. If they come, I hope that these changes will eventually reduce the emphasis on carnage and cruelty in the media, which play such an important role in the lives of people in this country.

Q. Do you have any parting advice to offer to classroom practitioners in the public schools and independent schools of America as they confront the continuing problems of violence that beset us?

A. The most cogent advice I can offer teachers who are faced with violence in a school or classroom setting is to make that subject one for discussion among school officials and even perhaps among students themselves. To use a clinical analogy, if a rash of assaults and outbursts erupts among patients in a ward, those in charge generally assume something is going on in there that is conducive to that kind of outburst. Similarly, in school, where there are episodes of violence, teachers should first look to the environment provided for children and youth.

To paraphrase Shakespeare, the fault may not be in our problem children but in *ourselves*—in the social or educational structures that fail to provide a suitable, humane "life support system" for young learners. □

Science—Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow

By **FRED BLUMENFELD**

Unified Science and Biology Instructor, Millburn (New Jersey) Senior High School, President-Elect, National Science Teachers Association.

This is the second in a series of articles on various subject matter areas, focusing on development of the subject area, changes over the years, and possible future trends. The first, "Social Studies—Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow," appeared in the March-April issue of Today's Education.

As we look at the science curriculums in our schools today, we note that we are often still using educational programs that were successful for a society less oriented toward rapid change. For the most part, we don't see new programs responsive to the consequences, both desirable and undesirable, of modern science and the technology growing out of it.

The textbooks and curriculums of the past emphasized the didactic. Students were expected to gain an appreciation of the natural world through memorization of facts and principles. Consideration of contextual relationships was almost nonexistent. Fortunately, some scholars in the field had the foresight to recognize the influence that science and science education could and would have on culture and society. Their insight was the basis upon which effective modern science education is founded.

World War II, with its special needs, produced a discontinuity in educational development which did not change until the late 1950's. At that time, the rapid growth of science and technology caused scientists to take a hard look at the high school science programs, and they found them wanting. The rise of Sputnik caused a further furor.

The major criticism of science education in the 1950's was that students were entering college poorly prepared in science. Some specific criticisms of science education below the college level included the following:

1. Science was being taught predominantly through technological application.
2. Science courses were predominantly fact-oriented.
3. Science courses did not develop unifying concepts.
4. Laboratory work was not open-ended, that is, not inquiry-oriented.
5. Modes of instruction were authoritarian, primarily teacher-centered.
6. Teachers were often poorly trained.

With the support of the National Science Foundation (NSF) and with the cooperation of educators and educational institutions, scientists began to plan curriculum reform in science education. Curriculum commissions, study groups, and others undertook the development of programs to update classroom teachers in their subject and develop new teaching materials and strategies.

The form and structure of the NSF-sponsored programs were based upon the principles set forth at the 1959 National Academy of Sciences Conference at Woods Hole, Massachusetts. The Conference developed two themes:

1. The underlying principles that give structure to a subject should be the basis for the curriculum of that subject.
2. Curricular activities should

allow students to approach science in the manner of a working scientist.

The Biological Sciences Curriculum Study (BSCS) program, for instance, uses three different schemes to develop the structure of biology. The so-called "yellow" version develops the structure through a cellular approach; the "blue" version, through a molecular theme; and the "green," through an ecological scheme.

Similarly, the structure of chemistry was approached either through the Chemical Systems or Bond Approach (CBA) or the Chemical Education Material Study (CHEMS). Physics has the Physical Science Study Committee (PSSC) program and, more recently, Project Physics (formerly Harvard Project Physics). In each case, these approaches are laboratory-centered and are designed for open-ended inquiry.

These developments in high school science quickly indicated the need for better science programs in the junior high and elementary schools. Such programs as Introductory Physical Science (IPS), Earth Science Curriculum Project (ESCP), Time, Space, and Matter (TSM), Intermediate Science Curriculum Study (ISCS), and others were designed for the junior high school. In the elementary schools, learning theory was more carefully considered in developing the science programs. The programs initiated at this level were Science—A Process Approach (SAPA), Science Curriculum Improvement Study (SCIS), Elementary Science Study (ESS), and many others. New elementary school science programs are still being developed, and recent trends indicate a shift toward unified science and mathematics programs, i.e., Unified Science and Mathematics for Elementary Schools (USMES).

All these K-12 projects in science education are still widely in use, although in many cases for high-ability students only. In addition, many of these high school science programs, some supported by NSF, have had a major impact on the design and content of many science texts and curriculums.

Most of the above programs assume that the same content and instruction are valid for students interested in science-related careers and also for those seeking only general education in the subject. As a matter of fact, such programs, while excellent for students selecting a vocation in science, have fallen far short of meeting the needs of those interested in general education. Neither have they changed the attitude of the general public toward science. The findings of the 1970 President's Task Force on Science Policy indicate that, in fact, the citizens' confidence in science has been eroded, in part because of a lack of understanding concerning how science improves the quality of their daily lives.

Education is a constantly changing endeavor. The needs of 15 years ago are not the needs of today. No one questions our ability to produce scientists and engineers. Today, however, the need is to produce an informed citizenry, one capable of making decisions in a world beset by technological and social problems. Our current high school science programs often fail to meet this need. They are often inflexible, locked into obsolete time patterns, and sometimes irrelevant. Also, they do not take into account the varying interests and abilities of students.

It now appears that we must modify the thesis set forth in the 1959 Woods Hole Conference. Jerome Bruner, the Conference chairman, later said in an article in the September 1971 issue of the *Phi Delta Kappan:*

> If I had my choice now, in terms of a curriculum project for the seventies, it would be to find a means whereby we could bring society back to its sense of values and priorities in life. *I believe I would be quite satisfied to declare, if not a moratorium, then something of a de-emphasis on matters that have to do with the structure of history, the structure of physics, the nature of mathematical consistency, and deal with it [a curriculum project] rather in the context of the problems that face us. . . . We might put vocation and intention back into the process of education much more firmly than we had them there before.*

We must, therefore, take a hard look at our present science curriculums. Instructional schemes must provide objectives based on a contextual setting rather than merely on structural ideas and processes. To this end, the curriculum committee of NSTA (National Science Teachers Association) has offered a blueprint for the future in its *Position Statement on School Science Education for the 1970's.* In part, the document states:

> All teachers, and especially science teachers, are challenged to educate young people to expect, to promote, and to direct societal change.
>
> Awareness of the social aspects of science includes—
>
> Perception of the cultural conditions within which science thrives.
>
> Recognition of the need to view the scientific enterprise within broad perspectives of culture, society, and history.
>
> Expectation that social and economic innovations may be necessary to improve man's condition. . . .

The implications of this statement are quite clear. Science courses should no longer be tied, inexorably, to a single discipline, isolated from a societal setting, and rarely touching on other relevant academic areas. The NSTA curriculum committee also recommends "that science be taught as a unified discipline, integrated, and/or coordinated with other disciplines, such as mathematics, English, social science, economics, po-

Using a volumeter, high school juniors measure the consumption of oxygen by germinating seeds. The teacher serves as a resource person.

litical science, and others."

NSF's Advisory Committee for Science Education had endorsed this position a year earlier in their report, *Science Education—The Task Ahead, for the National Science Foundation*, which states:

> The articulation of mathematics with science, of science with technology, and of technology with the future of man and society poses the greatest challenge we face in the area of curriculum. Without this articulation, we will continue to suffer from a long list of educational ills which threaten both the future of science and of society. . . . Undoubtedly the fault lies not with our citizenry but with their education and its conventional breakdown of instruction into disciplines. Second generation curriculum attempts must emphasize the interdisciplinary nature of science and technology.

This recommendation received further support at NSF's 1971 Callaway Gardens Conference on Building a Multiyear, Multidisciplinary High School Science Program. At this conference, the participants emphasized, among other things, the need for a transdisciplinary instructional approach to science education.

The unified mode of instruction would enable students to gain a more complete understanding of the total setting of a problem or system under study. For example, a consideration of the population problem could involve study in such areas as birth control (biology and political science), housing and food supply (social studies and economics), and energy needs

and pollution (physics and ecology).

Although we know that students vary widely in personality, ability, interests, background, skills and motivations, we teach for the most part as if they were like peas in a pod. In the traditional science class, all pupils begin at the same point; follow the same path; and finish supposedly with the same result, depending upon the educator's point of view. Is this a realistic expectation? I do not think so, especially if we are obligated to insure that every individual attains maximum potential.

In our efforts to develop the full potential of students, we must first provide them with many optional learning activities. To do this, we must eliminate the notion that the only way to learn a subject is to study it for a full year. One method of removing the lockstep schedule of programming and at the same time increasing the alternatives and interest in science courses is through the individualization of instruction. This mode of teaching permits students to proceed by self-paced study through a series of self-selected modules of a multidisciplinary nature, thereby allowing them to decide the topics they wish to study, the order in which to study them, and the time they will devote to each one.

Presently, there are several places where a full or partial individualized instruction program is in existence, including Millburn, New Jersey; Barringer High School in Newark, New Jersey; and Shawnee Mission, Kansas.

Auto-tutorial schemes, minicourses, college-school activities, and career-oriented programs are alternative teaching practices currently in use. We must recognize, of course, that all options require flexible scheduling which provides teachers and students with essential blocks of unstructured modules.

Whatever the teaching strategies, it is now evident that the teacher's function is altered. The educational environment is now teacher-managed instead of teacher-oriented. The instructor guides students, arranges to have instructional materials available, is involved with individual and small-group interaction, and generally serves as a resource person.

To insure attainment of success in the use of the modern instructional schemes, the training of teachers becomes a most important factor. In the final analysis, it is the teacher who proposes alternative program units, determines their time distribution, and designs instructional materials for the broad range of student interests and needs. It is also the instructor who develops appropriate assessment procedures for evaluating student progress as well as curriculum design.

How well can new teachers entering the profession and those presently in the classroom cope with these novel approaches? Will communities be inclined to support in-service programs to retrain and reeducate teachers? Will teacher educating institutions be willing to restructure courses so that new science teachers are prepared to promote alternative instructional programs?

These questions cannot be resolved quickly, for it is no easy task to provide a meaningful educational program. However, articulation of the science program in grades K through 12 must be insured so that the best development approach to science is obtained. To do this, we must increase communication between classroom teachers and those who prepare them. We must also increase our efforts to seek both governmental and private support for programs that provide aid to science education in all its aspects.

Now is the time to face the educational challenges of the future with commitment and conviction. For yesterday's learned experiences structure today's realities which, in turn, formulate tomorrow's creativity. □

The National Science Teachers Association, an NEA-associated organization, cooperated in the preparation of this article.

For information on how to obtain materials produced by recent science curriculum projects, see *The Eighth Report of the International Clearinghouse on Science and Mathematics Curricular Developments, 1972*, available at $2 a copy from the Clearinghouse at the Science Teaching Center, Univ. of Maryland, College Park 20742. (Make check payable to Amer. Assn. for the Advancement of Science.) See also NSF's publication, *Course and Curriculum Improvement Projects* (E-74-30), 1974 ed. Single copies are available free from Forms and Publications Unit, ASO, National Science Foundation, Washington, DC 20550; multiple copies, for $1.20 each, from Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402.

For Further Reading

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BOOKS

Getting Ready: The Education of a White Family in Inner City Schools by **Lois Mark Stalvey.** Morrow. 313 pp. $7.95.

In *Getting Ready*, Lois Stalvey jars us into looking at urban public education, not only through the eyes of a few concerned parents, but through the eyes of the children, black and white, but mostly black, for whom school appears to be a deliberate attempt on the part of white society to prove that they are indeed inferior and subhuman.

Lois Stalvey's decision to move from Omaha to Philadelphia to raise her white children and send them to school in black Philadelphia was probably based more on one fleeting incident than on anything else. Her son, Spike, upon seeing a black woman drop a parcel in an Omaha supermarket said, "Mommie, that *cleaning lady* dropped her package!" The stark realization that black people had little status in the minds of her children, that they had never met a black child, and that Spike did not nor could not know that the "cleaning lady" was a doctor's wife shocked Mrs. Stalvey into realizing that her children had an "educational problem."

Getting Ready is about Mrs. Stalvey's attempt to clear up her children's "educational problem." She catapults her children into a public school system where they learn quickly that they can depend upon favored treatment from white teachers and that many white teachers crush any hopes that black children may have for dignity, justice, or an education.

Mrs. Stalvey overstates the responsibility and culpability of teachers and offers too simplified a view of the role of the teachers' union. She sees, "the big city schools . . . being bled 'white' by white unions to a now-impending death." She attributes too much influence to the individual teacher as if good teaching can compensate for all of society's ills.

What she does discover without fully realizing it is that the noble experiment of American public education may indeed be dead in the cities, that everybody who makes a dollar from it may be feeding on carrion and not caring too much.

This is a must book for all teachers—not only for those who teach in the cities where school boards and school administrators have abandoned the kids, but for those who teach where the school authorities still care, where the infection has not yet spread.

Reviewed by **Rudolph A. Lawton,** *associate director for affiliate relations, NEA.*

The Chicanos: Life and Struggles of the Mexican Minority in the United States by **Gilberto López y Rivas.** Translated and edited by Elizabeth Martínez and the author. Monthly Review Press. 187 pp. $7.95.

The Next Generation: An Ethnography of Education in an Urban Neighborhood by **John U. Ogbu.** Academic Press. 275 pp. $11.50.

Both books are about American minorities. López y Rivas writes about the history of Mexican Americans. Ogbu, born in Nigeria, now a permanent resident of the United States, studies the education of Blacks and Chicanos in a poverty area of Stockton, California.

López y Rivas is bitter about the life and struggles of the Mexican minority in the United States. Understandably, these lives are his life; these struggles, his struggles.

His cure is drastic: "Minorities must look for their own way to a truly human kind of life, and that way is the total transformation of U.S. society. . . . So long as capitalism is the reigning system in the U.S., absolute inequality of all fields important to human life will prevail."

In *The Next Generation*, Ogbu concludes: ". . . the concept of equal educational opportunity has received only a partial definition in American social science." To be complete, it must include incentive motivation. "Equal educational opportunity therefore refers to both equal favorable learning conditions for all children and to the equal enjoyment of the benefits or rewards of education by individuals and segments of the society according to their educational achievement."

While López y Rivas argues for revolution, Ogbu shows the way to constructive evolution.

Reviewed by **B. Jo Kinnick,** *poet and consultant to Title I schools, Oakland, California.*

A Child's Eye View: Piaget for Young Parents and Teachers by **Mary Sime.** Harper & Row. 140 pp. $6.95.

In this small book, Ms. Sime and her team have written about several children ranging from preschoolers to adolescents and their experiences in attempting various experiments developed by Piaget. The careful description of the experiments plus the delightful photographs indicating the children's immense concentration give a clear idea of each test.

Then Ms. Sime gives a detailed description of children at the three stages of development in understanding abstract properties. Although the author is professional and objective in her reporting, she does allow the personalities of the children to slip in.

Whether one has read Piaget or not, this book should be rewarding reading. Ms. Sime gives a brief but adequate description of Piaget's theories and experiments. Parents and teachers alike will be intrigued.

Reviewed by **Mary M. Harris,** *first grade teacher, Edward Devotion Public School, Brookline, Massachusetts.*

The Water Is Wide by **Pat Conroy.** Houghton Mifflin. 316 pp. $6.95. Dell, paperback, $1.50.

Conrack. Twentieth Century-Fox.

The Water Is Wide, called *Conrack* in the movie version, is a moving account of a young white male, recently graduated from The Citadel (a military college in Charleston, South Carolina) and his efforts to cope with the white-supremacy syn-

drome of coastal Beaufort, South Carolina; the white-power structure of the education system; and his personal feelings of guilt after seeing the sit-ins in North Carolina, visiting Dachau, Germany, and observing whites react unsympathetically to the death of Martin Luther King, Jr., and Blacks, to the death of Lurleen Wallace. The book and film will strike a familiar chord with educators who have been thwarted by similar forces beyond their control.

Pat Conroy, a southern-born child of a Marine Corps family, realized that his early learnings about "colored folks" were not accurate. His failure to get into the Peace Corps led him to try teaching at Yamacraw, an island not far from Beaufort and Savannah, Georgia, and accessible only by boat. There were only four families of whites living on the island; all of his students were black.

Conrack, as he is called by the islanders, gets into conflict with Mrs. Brown, a part-Black-part-Indian teacher, who warns him from the outset that he is teaching "overseas" and that he will have to be stern and use switches to make these "lazy babies" respect him. Mrs. Brown disapproves of the young teacher's letting the youngsters sing into a tape recorder in the classroom, telling him that singing is "a waste of time" and asking him to consider what the "State Department" would think of his methods.

With the help of friends who are as Peace-Corps minded as he is, Conrack gets whites on the mainland to take the children, most of whom have never been off the island, into their homes for overnight stays. In a town like Beaufort, such an activity is not taken lightly. But when he is eventually dismissed, tardiness, not his "unorthodox" teaching methods, is the reason given for the board action.

This story of Conrack's approach to learning and teaching suggests how much agony might have been avoided had he possessed a knowledge of how to teach disadvantaged fifth graders. Conrack recalls the opportunities he has had and contrasts *his* early life with that of these island children who suffer from discrimination, isolation, hopelessness, embarrassment, and poor health. His reflections throughout the book will cause teachers to take a new look at themselves as they set educational expectations for children.

The film emphasizes Conrack's easy manner and his relationship with the children but does not include Conrack's confrontation with school authorities or his personal contacts off the island—his friends and family who help him bear the problems he faces.

Probably because of censorship, the film also does not include the flat, colorful language the children used in response to Conrack as he cajoled, agitated, and irritated them in his effort to teach them.

The film and the book present a story that proves once again the need for a profession to take stands against inequities that exist for children because of their race, geographic location, economic condition, sex, or religion.

Reviewed by **Elizabeth Duncan Koontz,** *former NEA president; Nutrition Program Coordinator, Department of Human Resources, State of North Carolina.*

At the 1974 NEA Convention last July, the Human Relations Council awarded Pat Conroy (and actress Cicely Tyson) special citations for their efforts which "have resulted in a national identity symbolizing the fight to overcome man's inhumanity to man." NEA had earlier provided financial support to Conroy in his unsuccessful attempt to reverse the school board's decision.

Birthrights by **Richard Farson.** Macmillan. 248 pp. $6.95.

Those who defend such critics of American education as Holt, Kozol, Illich, and now Richard Farson are often cornered with a variation of the question, Isn't America the richest, most advanced, intelligent, and stable country on earth? And, therefore, isn't our education system working well?

In response, one might ask, Isn't our educational system failing because America has 10 million alcoholics and climbing rates of suicide, divorce, juvenile delinquency, and homicide?

The author of *Birthrights* responds in another way when he says that the regular school curriculum of math, English, science, and history is but camouflage for the hidden curriculum —alternately called the American value system of growth, progress, competition, and measurement.

Birthrights is an honest, impassioned attempt to raise consciousness about the humiliating experiences children suffer not only in school but everywhere. In challenging the concept of childhood itself, Farson combines historical materials with a deft logic that succeeds in getting us to question that concept, too.

His main point, that "the objective of any liberation movement is to reduce the ways in which people victimize each other," is well developed through his arguments. But the faults of the book—a tendency for overkill and annoying forays into pedantry—might hurt his cause.

Saying too much after the point has been made is not uncommon for books of this type, but sometimes Farson's style slips into heavy-handedness. He is occasionally condescending if not insulting to the audience that he is seeking to influence.

His idea of a civil rights program for children will most assuredly raise eyebrows. But those who carefully consider his reasoning will find it difficult to support the status quo. Unfortunately, as the current backlash against even meager educational reform indicates, the status quo is in no trouble. In that regard, Farson's best line of the book is "We [Americans] are good at that, raising our consciousness but not changing our behavior."

Reviewed by **John Henderson,** *student, Harvard Graduate School of Education, on leave from Ramsey (New Jersey) High School.*

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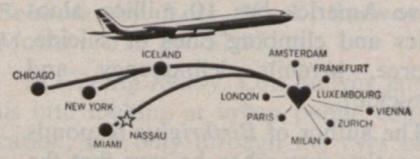

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BOOKS
(Continued)

Escape from Childhood: The Needs and Rights of Children by **John Holt.** Dutton. 286 pp. $7.95.

Not strictly a book about education, John Holt's latest volume has something to offend (or at least arouse) everyone, teachers included. He proposes to extend the rights and responsibilities of adults to any child of whatever age who chooses to accept them. He would offer children the right to vote, the right to live away from home, the right to financial independence and responsibility —"the right to do, in general, what any adult may legally do."

The book fails because it never builds a case for why children should *want* to escape from childhood. As self-appointed spokesman for the young, Holt would liberate them from that which, it seems sure, they have no need or desire to escape.

Decision and reasoned choice would rule the kind of society Holt envisions. It seems more than likely, however, that the children least capable of responsible decision making would be among the first to seize new freedoms. In their hands, liberty would become license.

Holt does not address himself to this point or to the larger concern of maturation and how his plan for instant adulthood would mesh with it. What is left unsaid, in fact, looms larger in omission than what is said.

Reviewed by **William H. Truesdell,** *English teacher, Northeast Middle School, Comstock, Michigan.*

The Great School Wars: New York City, 1805-1973 by **Diane Ravitch.** Basic Books. 449 pp. $12.95.

The primary value in this well-written and superbly documented book about the New York City schools is that it provides the monumental evidence necessary to establish with some finality that school reform cannot take place merely through the manipulation of the internal resources of a school system.

This evidence grows out of Ms. Ravitch's examination of four "school wars," each of which coincided with a wave of new immigration to New York City. In the first, which occurred in the 1840's, Cathotics fought for public funding of their schools; in the second, which developed at the end of the nineteenth century, reformers "demanded modernization, centralization, and professionalization"; in the third, which came in the second decade of the twentieth century, reformers demanded efficiency; and in the last, which developed in the mid-twentieth century, reformers wanted integration and community control of the schools. Ms. Ravitch takes as her thesis that schools are less an entity in themselves and more the field of combat on which the mighty forces inherent in political and sociological conflict wage their wars.

Her work has value far outside the reaches of New York City because of the universality which is apparent in her analysis of the cause-effect relations that flow from community tensions to school reform. Her perceptive reading of history shows that society does far more to shape the schools than schools do to shape society. For the education reformer, her work contains a powerful and difficult-to-dispute message: School reform is much more probable when the effort is aimed at community problems rather than at the organization or substance of the schools.

The only distressing note in her study is the usual one that emerges from histories: Despite the lessons of the past, mistakes repeat and repeat. The parallels are evident in the confrontations between the immigrant Catholics and the schools in the nineteenth century and the flurry of hostility between the Blacks and the schools in the 60's.

Ms. Ravitch succeeds in establishing the fact that successful teachers need heavy doses of politics and sociology along with traditional methods and subject matter courses.

Reviewed by **Girard D. Hottleman,** *assistant executive secretary for programs, Massachusetts Teachers Association, Boston.*

CLASSROOM

By JANE TYLOR FIELD
Teacher of English and Creative Writing, Hilltop High School, Chula Vista, California.

This is the first in a continuing feature on classroom tips. These are suggestions made or collected by Mrs. Field, and she urges NEA members to send in interesting and useful teaching ideas on the elementary and secondary level for possible use in future issues. Mail suggestions to Box IE, Today's Education, *1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.*

We can rightly say to classes that all the world is our subject matter, our oyster. The trouble often is finding ways to open it. Perhaps some of the following suggestions will do the trick.

Short story writing coming up and you hate plagiarism? Ask students to find inspiration in the local newspapers' personals column or other classified ad sections. This gimmick not only inhibits copying, but it frequently gives not-too-creative writers a plot idea. Not to mention some insights about what's really going on in this world!

Teachers from Socrates to Thoreau have taught in the great outdoors. Barbara Anderson of Naranca Elementary School in El Cajon, California, takes her second graders to the playground "numbers line" for math drill. The line consists of numbers from 1 to 100 painted on the asphalt. If Sammy is standing on number 8, for instance, Mrs. Anderson asks him to add 6 and move to the result (number 14). Or to subtract 5, in which case he should dash to 3. This exercise is helpful with math skills, is fun, and gets children out in the sun.

Antique hunting by Carrie Post, Katie Valenti, and Dorothy Gustafson resulted in a jukebox in the kindergarten room at West Willow School in Belleville, Michigan. They acquired it free in exchange for getting it hauled away. (Men teachers obliged.) A school candy sale raised $95 to pay for repairs.

Instead of "Beer Barrel Polka" or "Just One More Chance," the records stacked inside now recite multiplication tables or tell stories or sing folk songs. After the kindergartners leave at noon, other children from all over school can punch buttons on this gorgeous *objet d'art* and listen for fun and edification.

Actual singing in English class often wakens the somnolent. "Where Have All the Flowers Gone?" is fine. But attempt something erudite, too, like the *Ode* by Philip Freneau which begins "God save the rights of man." The tune? Try "America."

Alba Arndt, teacher of sixth grade language arts, Hailey (Idaho) Junior High School, is an exception to the "Do as I say, not as I do" cliché. Last school year, she decided that classroom motivation alone was insufficient to encourage her students to develop broader reading habits. Therefore, she began spending one evening each week in the public library herself, reading with evident enjoyment. At the same time, she correlated lesson ideas with library facilities.

As a result, Tuesday evening became a sixth grade library night, and book interest and library patronage went up and up in the group.

Twice a year, on the season's opening day and again at World Series time, Jean Marks' seventh grade English classes at Eastchester (New York) Junior High School traditionally participate in her special version of spelling baseball.

Mrs. Marks selects two of her top spellers and has them choose sides. Once formed, the respective line-ups, which remain intact throughout the game and are adhered to scrupulously (no pinch hitters here), are listed on the blackboard. Each team is given a ferocious name, such as Panthers or Lions. A large baseball diamond is drawn on the board and a scoring column outlined.

Mrs. Marks uses four lists of words classified according to difficulty. The easiest are worth a single; slightly tougher ones, a double; hard ones, a triple. Home run words are, of course, real sticklers.

At each batter's turn, the slugger selects a category and has 20 seconds to connect with (to spell) the pitched word. If the batter is successful, an X is then placed at whatever base he or she has earned. This player will advance according to the value of any base a teammate then makes.

An incorrect spelling is an out. Each team gets three outs, and then the sides change. Mrs. Marks is the sole umpire. Her authority is supreme, and argumentative participants who give her too much rhubarb may be sent to the "showers."

One American family in five moves every year. Children are uprooted from home, faced with new playmates, new neighborhood, new doctor, new dentist. Above all, with the trauma of a new school.

Carolyn P. Mellor, a teacher in Newton, Massachusetts, suggests that schools develop a definite plan to make things easier for the lonesome ones. Teachers should choose pupils who have some standing with their peers to show a newcomer around and introduce him or her to other pupils.

Encourage boys and girls to involve new children in team games after school. Ask room mothers about families in particular neighborhoods who might invite new pupils over to play at their homes. Interview children who have themselves been recent transfers to find out what their special problems were in moving to this community. They might be most helpful of all in preventing needless unhappiness and in making every new youngster feel at home in your school from the first day.

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Source Materials for Teachers of Foreign Languages. 1974 edition. 40 pp. $3.50 (381-12090).

Total Community Library Service. An NEA-ALA Joint Project. 148 pp. $5 (381-12080).

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About Syphilis and Gonorrhea. Explains the symptoms of the diseases and how they spread. 1974. 16 pp. 25¢; quantity discounts available. Channing L. Bete Co., Inc., 41 Federal St., Greenfield, MA 01301.

Let's See. For preschool and primary grades. Encourages children to use their developing visual skills for learning and for play. 1973. 28 pp. 50¢; quantity discounts available. Public Information Division, American Optometric Assn., 7000 Chippewa St., St. Louis, MO 63119.

The New Alcoholics: Teenagers. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 499. Discusses why young people drink and what can be done about the problem. 1973. 20 pp. 35¢; quantity discounts available. Public Affairs Pamphlets, 381 Park Ave. S., New York 10016.

Teach Nutrition with Bulletin Boards. 1973. 19 pp. $2. Nutrition Education Service Center, Montclair State College, Upper Montclair, NJ 07043.

Language Arts

Guidelines for Creative Writing. New ed. Elementary level. Includes chapters on "Developing Word Skills" and "Writing Poetry." 1973. 48 pp. $1.50. The Instructor Publica-

(Continued on page 98)

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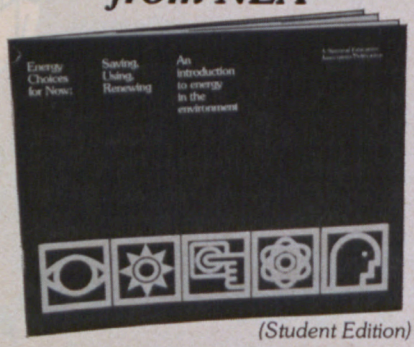
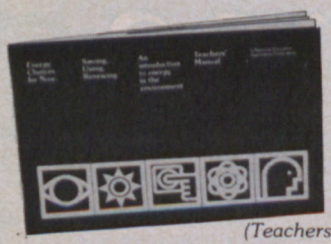


(Student Edition)



(Teachers' Manual)

Energy Choices for Now has been designed to provide a variety of viewpoints to enable students to analyze, evaluate and decide upon the energy alternatives open now and in the future.

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Related NEA Environmental Education Resource Materials for Teachers

Environment and Population: A Sourcebook for Teachers provides supplementary material to be integrated into existing curricula. Concepts developed in each subject area are closely related to those developed in other areas.

This sourcebook provides substantive information on the critical relationship between the numbers and distribution of people and the carrying capacity of the environment . . . and considers, as well, genocide, immigration policies, and consumption patterns.
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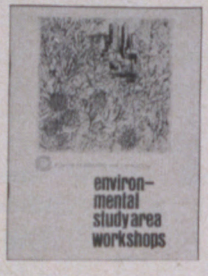

Environmental Study Area Workshops is a basis for facilitating commitment to on-going environmental education because it leads teachers, resource managers, and environmental specialists to explore the environmental study area as a learning laboratory. Chapters include "Assumptions About Learning as Guidelines for Designing ESA Workshops," "Pre-Workshop Activities," "The Workshop Design Process," "Conducting the Workshop," "Workshop Follow-Up" . . . and are extended by "Selected References."
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Mail to: **NEA Order Dept., The Academic Building Saw Mill Road, West Haven, CT 06516**

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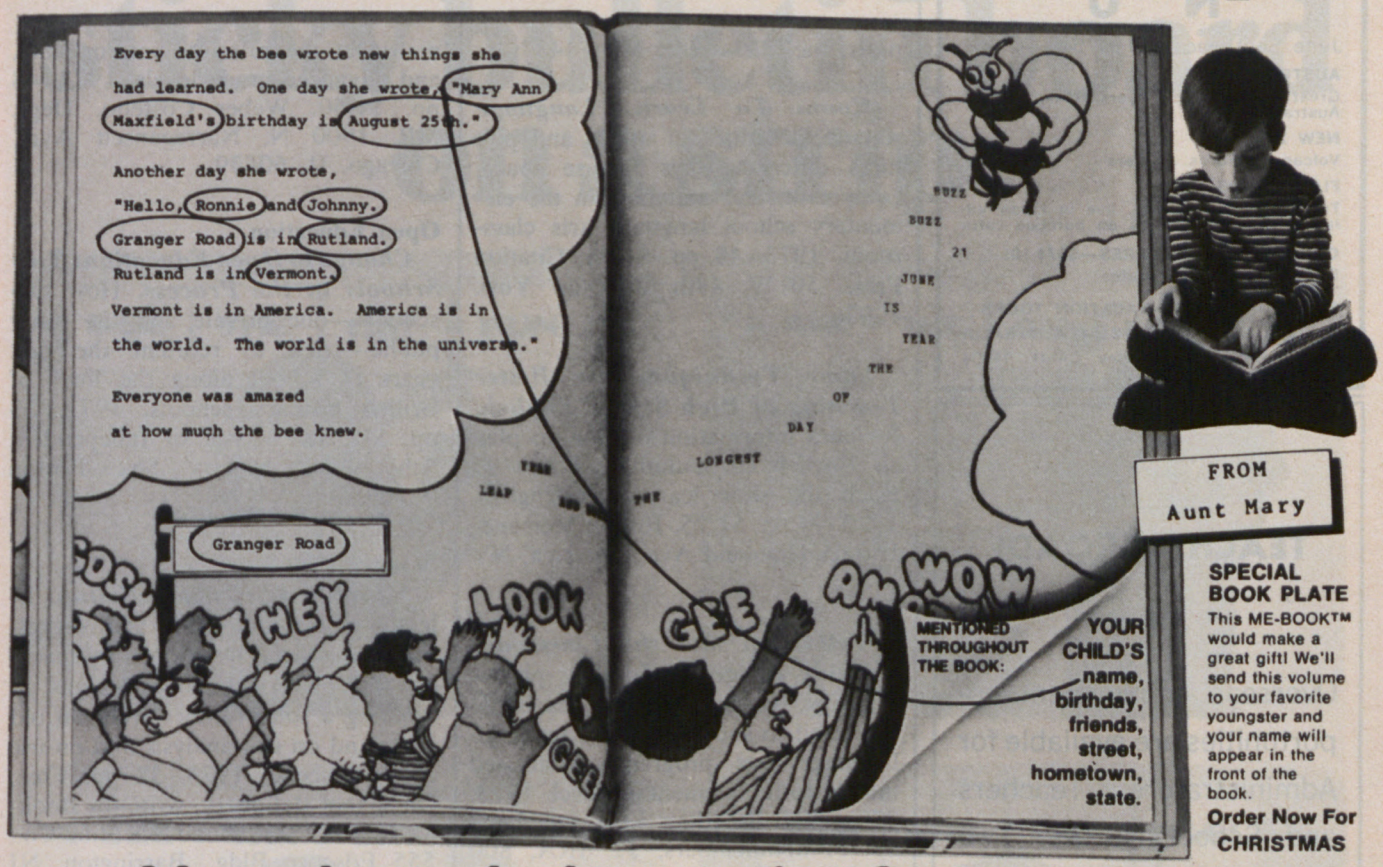

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tions, Inc., Dansville, NY 14437.

Room To Learn: Language Areas. Describes in words and pictures different ways to use space, equipment, and materials in the elementary school language arts classroom. 1973. 48 pp. $1.45. Citation Press, 50 W. 44th St., New York 10036.

Some Techniques for Better Teaching of High School English. Includes information on how to plan an English curriculum and how to teach the slow learner in English. 1973. 94 pp. $1.25. Joseph Mersand, 166-05 Highland Ave., Jamaica, NY 11432.

Television and the Classroom Reading Program. Suggests practical ways teachers can use the home TV habit to supplement the reading/language arts program. Addressed mainly to the elementary level. 1973. 32 pp. Intl. Reading Assn. members, $1.75; nonmembers, $2. IRA, 800 Barksdale Rd., Newark, DE 19711.

The Metric System

Glossary of Metric Conversions. Booklet of over 1,100 conversions. 1974. 18 pp. $1.50; 10 or more copies, $1.20 each postpaid. Henry Lavin Associates, Inc., 12 Promontory Dr., Cheshire, CT 06410.

Instanswer Metric Converter. A circular slide-rule-type converter that translates our present system to metric or metric to our present system. $2; quantity discounts available. Jay Scott Associates, P.O. Box 4065, Memphis, TN 38104.

Metric Measurement: Activities and Bulletin Boards. Emphasizes the concepts of measurement; uses metric units as the vehicle for this emphasis. 1973. 48 pp. $1.50. Instructor Publications, Inc., Dansville, NY 14437.

Teaching the Metric System. Explains to teachers the direct All Metric International System of teaching metric at the primary, intermediate, and advanced grade levels. 1973. 48 pp. $1.50. Weber Costello, Dept. MP, 1900 N. Narragansett Ave., Chicago, IL 60639.

Open Education

Change to Open Education: Two Schools in the Process. How two schools—one private and the other public—tried to reorient the first years of school along the lines of British primary schools. 1972. 33 pp. $1. Natl. Assn. of Independent Schools, 4 Liberty Sq., Boston 02109.

Science

Simplified Science Activities. 14 lesson plans and ideas and suggestions for others. Developed by teachers for teachers. Includes lessons on building a solar furnace from an old crate and on soil analysis and on use of a telescope. 1973. 32 pp. Free. On school stationery, write for Booklet No. 9896. Edmund Scientific Co., 555 Edscorp Bldg., Barrington, NJ 08007.

United Nations Day—October 24

Order the following from UNA-USA, Publications Orders, 345 E. 46th St., New York 10017. Minimum order: $2 plus postage.

Annotated Bibliography of Teaching Materials on the UN. 1973. 22 pp. 50¢.

Basic Facts About the United Nations. 1971. 80 pp. $1.

A Portfolio of Projects: Suggested Projects on the United Nations and Its Agencies for Elementary and Secondary Schools. 1974. 12 pp. $1.50.

Portfolio of Teaching Materials. Contains model unit of UN peacekeeping activities, simulation on economic development, annotated bibliography, fact sheets, and other material for students and teachers. 1974. $2.50.

See "New NEA Materials" on page 94 for more listings of free or inexpensive materials.

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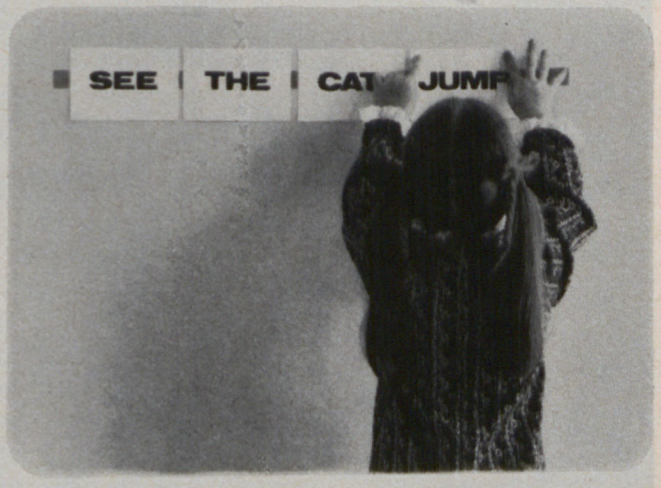

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DEVELOPMENTS

Supreme Court Rules on Detroit Case

While accepting the concept of cross-district desegregation plans under appropriate circumstances, the U.S. Supreme Court, on July 25, 1974, struck down a lower court ruling which had ordered metropolitan school desegregation among the Detroit school district and 53 surrounding districts. (An article in a forthcoming issue of *Today's Education* will explore the Court decision.)

Drop in Elementary Enrollment

Elementary school enrollment in the United States dropped by some 770,000, or 2.4 percent, in 1973 as a result of the nation's declining birth rate, according to the Bureau of the Census. A survey taken in October 1973 shows 31.5 million students enrolled in elementary school (grades 1 to 8). This compares with 32.2 million in 1972 and 33.5 million in 1971.

The report shows that the number of persons of high school and college age has not yet been affected by the declining trend in fertility.

Teacher Strikes Total 140 Last Year

NEA reports 140 teacher strikes for 1973-74, a slight decline from 1972-73. The all-time high figure was 181 teacher strikes in 1969-70.

During the last school year, teacher strikes involved an estimated 57,000 persons and about 711,000 work days. NEA affiliates were involved in 117 of the 140 strikes.

A strike by more than 100 members of the Timberlane Regional Education Association in New Hampshire is the longest teacher strike in the history of the nation. The Timberlane association is a local affiliate of the NEA and the New Hampshire Education Association. (See the May 1974 and August 1974 issues of the *NEA Reporter* for more information on the Timberlane strike.)

HEW Rules on Sex Discrimination

HEW has issued proposed rules to administer Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, which pro-

hibits sex discrimination in any education program or activity receiving federal funds. (See "The Law and Teacher Rights" on page 19. An article in a forthcoming issue of *Today's Education* will explore the topic of equal opportunity for girls in athletics.)

Council on Children Established

The Carnegie Corporation of New York has established the Carnegie Council on Children to look at the needs of children in the United States up to about the age of nine and to examine the public policies affecting them.

The chairman of the Council, Kenneth Keniston, emphasizes that the Council will look at the needs of all children as a group and not at the needs of poor children or handicapped children as an isolated minority. "Many problems of children cut across boundaries of race and income," says Keniston, mentioning that learning problems, especially, hamper middle-class children as well as those from low-income families.

Book Sales Increase in 1973

Book sales in 1973 totaled slightly more than $3 billion, an increase of 6.3 percent over 1972 sales, according to estimates of the Association of American Publishers. This increase compares favorably to the 2.9 percent increase in 1972 over 1971.

Elementary and secondary textbook sales increased by 10.1 percent; college textbook sales, by 4.5 percent.

School Journalism

Students should have ultimate authority over and responsibility for high school media within the limits of the First Amendment, according to a controversial report by the Commission of Inquiry into High School Journalism, which was convened by the Robert F. Kennedy Memorial. The report, *Captive Voices: High School Journalism in America,* calls censorship of journalism dangerous and deplores "limitation of student participation in journalism because

(Continued on page 104)

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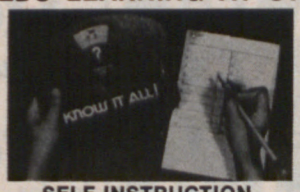

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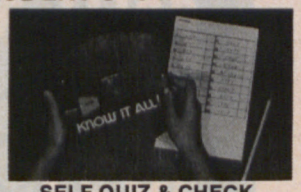

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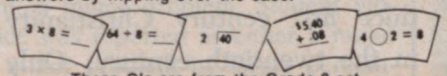

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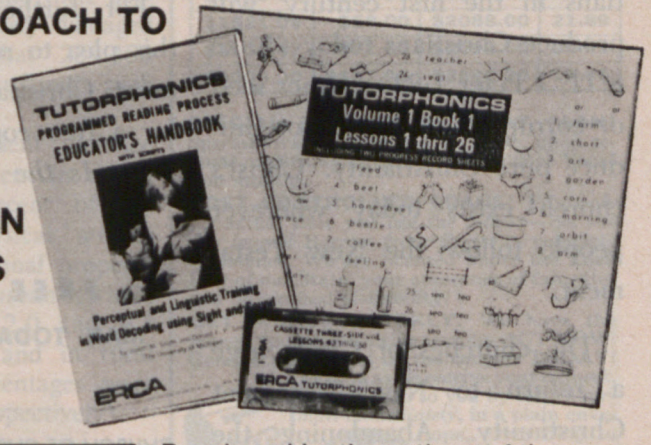

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Yes, it is possible to reproduce first century Christianity in the twentieth century. Only by a complete return to the teaching of the Scriptures, however, can we truly have "one Lord, one faith, one baptism" (Ephesians 4:4,5). Open your New Testament and follow its teaching. You can be just a Christian like Peter, Paul, the Eunuch, Priscilla, and others were 1,900 years ago.

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Developments
(Continued)

of minority status."

The report is available from Schocken Books, 200 Madison Ave., New York 10016 for $1.45.

Students OK Women President

Sixty-five percent of more than 50,000 high school juniors and seniors would support a woman for President if their favorite political party nominated a woman, according to a survey conducted by Scholastic's National Institute of Student Opinion. Forty-eight percent of the young men would support a woman for President, and 80 percent of the young women would support one.

Craftsmen-in-Schools

In response to the revival of interest in crafts throughout the country, a crafts component has been added to the 1974-75 Artists-in-Schools Program, a joint project of the National Endowment for the Arts and the U.S. Office of Education. The Endowment has made grants totaling $324,640 for residencies of professional craftsmen in elementary and secondary schools in 37 states.

These grants will go to state arts agencies in participating states and must be matched on a dollar-for-dollar basis from state, local, and private sources.

More Women in Medical Schools

The number of women enrolled in U.S. medical schools has more than doubled in just three years, according to an article in the *New York Times*. And the rise is on the increase.

Last fall, 19.7 percent of first-year students were women in these schools as compared with 11.1 percent three years ago and 7.8 percent a decade ago.

Teacher Education Programs

A national survey of teacher education programs shows that most of the 719 institutions responding reported no changes in the last three years in course-hour requirements for general and professional education. Yet, over 70 percent indicated

they are planning to institute performance-based programs—ones which are highly individualized and often place little emphasis on formal course-hour requirements.

The survey was cosponsored by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and Educational Testing Service.

Freshmen Aim for Graduate Work

The number of new college freshmen who wish to do graduate work is on the increase, according to a 1973 survey conducted jointly by the University of California, Los Angeles, and the American Council on Education. The proportion of new freshmen planning to obtain graduate degrees, which reached a low point (42.3 percent) in 1971, increased to 56.9 percent in 1973—the highest figure since the survey was initiated in 1966.

Grants for Teachers

Grants to teach abroad or to attend a summer seminar abroad for the 1975-76 academic year are available under the Fulbright-Hays Act.

Elementary and secondary teachers, college instructors, and assistant professors are eligible. U.S. citizenship, a BA degree, and at least three years of successful full-time teaching are required for teaching positions. A minimum of two years' teaching experience is required for seminars.

An information bulletin and application may be obtained from Teacher Exchange Section, Division of International Education, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, DC 20202. Deadline for applications is November 1, 1974.

Drop in Education Majors

The nation's declining birth rate has apparently had an impact on the number of college students majoring in the field of education, according to a Census Bureau report. Between surveys taken in October of 1966 and 1972, the Bureau estimates that the number of education majors declined by some 110,000.

TEACHER OPINION POLL

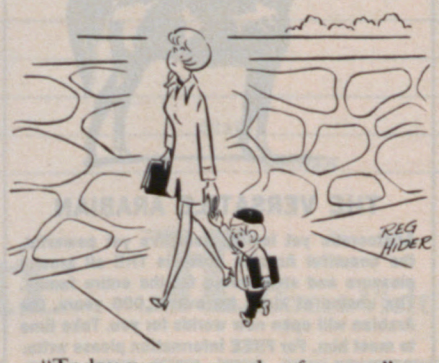
The data presented here are from the 1974 nationwide opinion poll of a small sample of public school teachers conducted by NEA Research.

Student Violence. About three-fourths of the teachers said that in their schools student violence was not a problem; 3.2 percent, that it was a major problem; and 20.0 percent, a minor problem. Student violence was reported as either a major or minor problem by larger percentages of teachers in urban school systems and in the largest systems than by those in suburban and smaller systems. Also, more violence was reported in suburban systems than in rural ones.

Although only 3.0 percent of the teachers in the sample reported being physically attacked by students, that figure, extrapolated to the total U.S. teacher population of 2.1 million, indicates that more than 63,000 American teachers were attacked by students last year. Similarly, that 11.4 percent of the sample had their personal property maliciously damaged by students means that 239,400 teachers nationwide suffered such damages.

These types of student violence are much more prevalent in urban areas (where 5.4 percent of the teachers reported physical attacks and 15.8 percent, personal property damage) than in suburban (where the percentages were 2.0 and 9.4 percent, respectively) and in rural areas (where the percentages were 1.9 and 9.6 percent, respectively).

—*NEA Research.*



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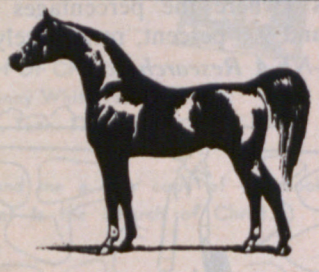

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For further information about NEA membership, write to NEA Membership Records, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

Today's Education is a member of the Educational Press Association and the Magazine Publishers Association. It is indexed in *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature, Education Index,* and *Current Index to Journals in Education.*

Chaperone

Don't let them kiss,
Don't let them shove,
On the floor below—
the bleachers above.
Just two things be wary of:
Too much anger—
too much love.

—Laurence J. LaRose, *English teacher, Vestal (New York) Junior High School.*

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Options? Kodak Supermatic products give you plenty. With Supermatic products, you choose the medium that best suits your teaching ideas. TV or movies. Small screen or large. One screen or many.

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setup involved, and very little room is needed. And since you can use TV with the room lights on, you can combine the TV message with reading or other visual displays.

If your school has a closed-circuit TV system, you can use the Supermatic film videoplayer to reach several classrooms at once. No need to crowd several classes together in one room.

When you're teaching in a large room, or want a larger-than-life effect, the Kodak Supermatic 60 sound projector is the answer. It projects super 8 films onto a room-size movie screen. And it uses the same inexpensive Supermatic cassette as the film videoplayer.

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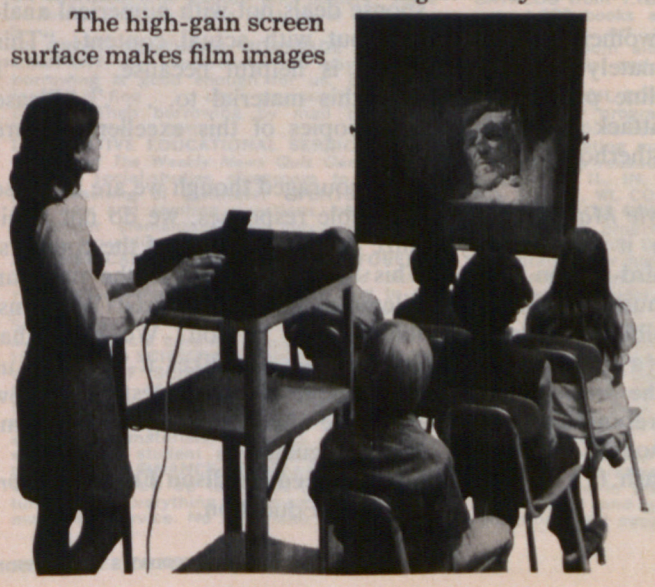

With the Kodak Supermatic 70 sound projector, you can add your own sound track—background music, sound effects, or lecture.

As long as you're teaching with film, why not make some super 8 movies of your own? It's simple and inexpensive when you use the Kodak Supermatic 24 camera or the Kodak Supermatic 200 sound camera. And since both work without movie lights, you can take films in just the light you teach by.

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AFTER ALL

We have a pronoun problem. Third person singular. In facing up to the same problem, Fred Wilhelms, former executive secretary of ASCD, proposes an offbeat solution:

"Whenever I write about students or teachers (and I suppose it's the same for others writing about other groups), I'm bothered by a lack in our language. I don't want to play the male chauvinist and act as though every pupil is 'he.' Neither do I wish to be a stereotyper and assume that every teacher is 'she.' Still if one once starts a paragraph with 'he or she,' one is led into an endless sequence of 'his or hers' and 'him or her.' The longer it goes the messier it gets.

"What we need is one pronoun to express the phrase. So, why don't we go roughly halfway from the 'h' in *he* to the 's' in *she*? That will give us *ne*, to mean 'he or she,' or to use whenever the sex is indeterminate. Then, for the possessive case, we can reach over to the masculine side and get *nis*, to mean 'his or her(s).' For the objective case, we can go to the feminine and get *ner*, to mean 'him or her.' That gives us the declension: *ne, nis, ner*. But how does one effect a change in the common language?"

Benjamin Spock, in *Redbook* (November 1973), says: "Like everyone else writing in the child-care field, I have always referred to the baby and child with the pronouns 'he' and 'him.' There is a grammatical excuse, since these pronouns can be used correctly to refer to a girl or woman . . . , just as the word 'man' may cover women too in certain contexts. But I now agree with the liberators of women that this is not enough of an excuse. The fact remains that this use of the male pronoun is one of many examples of discrimination, each of which may seem of small consequence in itself but which, when added up, help to keep women at an enormous disadvantage—in employment, in the courts, in the universities, and in conventional social life.

"But what do I use instead of the bisexual 'he'? . . . When the plural is not possible, I'll use 'she' and 'her' in the general sense to cover both girl and boy. . . ."

Maybe Dr. Spock can get by with that solution but, judging by past experience, *Today's Education* would run into trouble with it. The *NEA Journal* in its early days used the feminine pronoun in referring to teachers, usage which elicited little response from women members of the profession, who were in the majority, and much criticism from the men.

The magazine eventually shifted to use of the masculine pronoun on the theory that grammatically it includes both sexes. Not all magazines and writers and speakers in education made the change, however. And by the mid-1960's some of the angry young men in teaching were claiming that references to the teacher as "she" were responsible in part for their poor public image and, consequently, in part for their low salaries.

Said one man on the floor of the NEA Representative Assembly: "The incorrect and improper use of the English language is a vestige of the nineteenth century image of the teacher, and this conflicts sharply with the vital image we attempt to set forth today. The interests of neither the women nor of the men in our profession are served by grammatical usage which conjures up an anachronistic image of the nineteenth century schoolmarm."

Today it is the women who are angry. They passionately object to the universal masculine pronoun. In the same vein, they attack such nouns as mankind and brotherhood.

The new *NEA Style Manual* offers this advice: "When it is necessary to make a generic third-person singular reference to a human being because it is not possible to construct the sentence either (a) in the plural or (b) by omitting the pronoun, both sexes should be represented if possible. The two pronouns should be joined either by a slash (/) or by the word *or*."

What are your thoughts about the third personal singular pronoun?

One of the greatest resources of *Today's Education* is the interest (indeed, the possessiveness) of its readers. Not that they agree among themselves. But they do send us their various reactions, and we learn a lot from them. Here are some negatives:

One teacher has counted Chicano and Asian American children in *Journal* photos and reports—too small a percentage. Others, the proportion of black children and white—unsatisfactory.

One teacher comments on the percentage of articles dealing with the elementary school level—too small. A secondary teacher reports exactly the opposite impression. Another complains that too many authors are from California, Michigan, New York, Illinois, and Massachusetts and asks: Where are the authors from Idaho? Vermont? Mississippi? (Where *are* they?)

So we try to stretch the few photos in a given issue to represent as many ethnic groups as possible. We strive for balance between elementary and secondary, between the sexes, among the geographic areas. We seek to make *Today's Education* responsive to its readers' wishes.

Fortunately for our sanity, the overwhelming proportion of letters express great satisfaction with the magazine. Most of the reader response deals not with numerical analyses but with actual content: "This article is helpful because. . . ." "I used this material to. . . ." "Please send copies of this excellent feature to. . . ."

Encouraged though we are by these favorable responses, we do not minimize the contribution of the counters. This brings us back to the pronoun dilemma. How does Fred Wilhelms' idea appeal to you? We hope that each reader who likes it will send us *nis* answer to the question: "How does one effect a change in the common language?"

—**Mildred Sandison Fenner,** *editor,* Today's Education.

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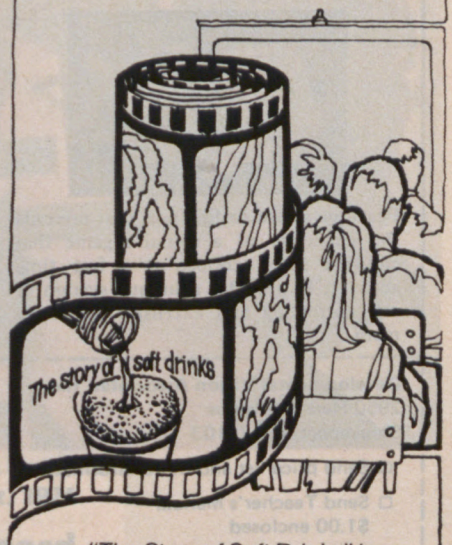

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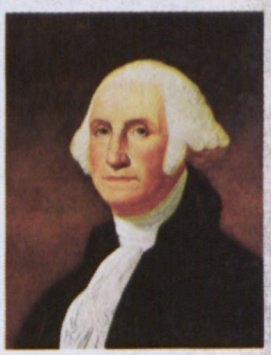

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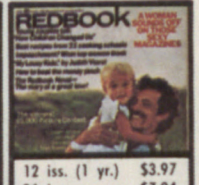

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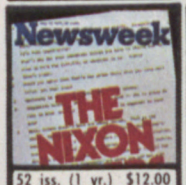

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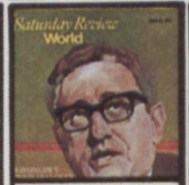

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